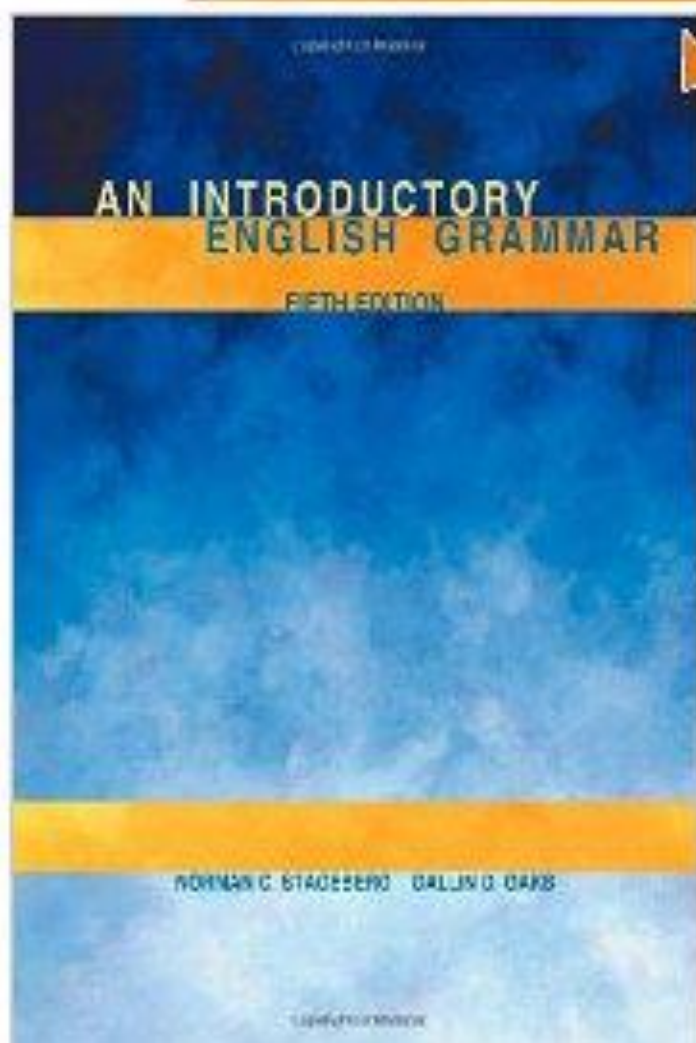


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Part Two

# The Morphology of English



# Morphemes

"In two words: im-possible."

(Verbal slip attributed to the movie magnate, Samuel Goldwyn)<sup>1</sup>

**W**e now turn our attention to the study of the internal structure of words, which is known as morphology. We will use the term *word* loosely, in its familiar sense, because a strict definition will not be necessary till later.

## A. Definition of Morpheme

Before we can examine the structure of words, we must become acquainted with an entity known as the morpheme. A morpheme is a short segment of language that meets three criteria:

1. It is a word or a part of a word that has meaning.
2. It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of its meaning or without meaningless remainders.
3. It recurs in differing verbal environments with a relatively stable meaning.

Let us examine the word *straight* /stret/ in the light of these criteria. First, we recognize it as a word and can find it listed as such in any dictionary. Second, it cannot be divided without violation of meaning. For example, we can, by dividing *straight* /stret/, get the smaller meaningful forms of *trait* /tret/, *rate* /ret/, and *ate* /et/, but the meanings of these violate the meaning of *straight*. Furthermore, when we divide it in these ways we get the meaningless remainders of /s-/ , /st-/ , and /str-/ . Third, *straight* recurs with a relatively stable meaning in such environments as *straightedge*, *straighten*, and *a straight line*. Thus *straight* meets all of the criteria of a morpheme.

As a second example let us compare the morpheme *bright* (= light) with the word *brighten* (= make light). In sound the only difference between the two words is the added /-ən/ of *brighten*, and in meaning the difference is the added sense of "make" in *brighten*. This leads us to conclude that /-ən/ means "make." Thus we

<sup>1</sup>From Alva Johnston's *The Great Goldwyn* as quoted in *Familiar Quotations*, 15<sup>th</sup> edition, by John Bartlett, ed. by Emily Morison Beck. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1980, p. 777.

see that /-ən/ is a part of a word that has meaning. We also know that it cannot be divided into smaller meaningful units and that it recurs with a stable meaning in words such as *cheapen*, *darken*, *deepen*, *soften*, and *stiffen*. It is therefore obvious that /-ən/ must be considered a morpheme. So *brighten* contains two morphemes: *bright* and *-en*.

### Exercise 8-1

After each word write a number showing how many morphemes it contains.

- |             |       |               |       |
|-------------|-------|---------------|-------|
| 1. play     | _____ | 11. keeper    | _____ |
| 2. replay   | _____ | 12. able      | _____ |
| 3. date     | _____ | 13. unable    | _____ |
| 4. antedate | _____ | 14. miniskirt | _____ |
| 5. hygiene  | _____ | 15. rain      | _____ |
| 6. weak     | _____ | 16. rainy     | _____ |
| 7. weaken   | _____ | 17. cheap     | _____ |
| 8. man      | _____ | 18. cheaply   | _____ |
| 9. manly    | _____ | 19. cheaper   | _____ |
| 10. keep    | _____ | 20. cover     | _____ |

### Exercise 8-2

Write the meaning of the italicized morphemes.

- |                               |       |
|-------------------------------|-------|
| 1. <i>antedate</i>            | _____ |
| 2. <i>replay</i>              | _____ |
| 3. <i>manly</i>               | _____ |
| 4. <i>keeper</i>              | _____ |
| 5. <i>unable</i>              | _____ |
| 6. <i>rainy</i>               | _____ |
| 7. <i>cheapest</i>            | _____ |
| 8. <i>inactive</i>            | _____ |
| 9. <i>impossible</i>          | _____ |
| 10. <i>malfunction</i> (noun) | _____ |

## B. Free and Bound Morphemes

Morphemes are of two kinds, free and bound. A free morpheme is one that can be uttered alone with meaning, such as the words *straight* or *bright* that we saw earlier. A bound morpheme, unlike the free, cannot be uttered alone with meaning. It is always annexed to one or more morphemes to form a word. The italicized morphemes in exercise 8-2 are all bound, for one would not utter in isolation such forms as *ante-*, *-ly*, *-er*, and *un-*. Here are a few more examples: *preview*, *played*, *activity*, *supervise*, *inter-*, *-vene*.



**Exercise 8-3**

Underline the bound morphemes. It is possible for a word to consist entirely of bound morphemes.

- |                |              |
|----------------|--------------|
| 1. speaker     | 6. biomass   |
| 2. kingdom     | 7. intervene |
| 3. petrodollar | 8. remake    |
| 4. idolize     | 9. dreamed   |
| 5. selective   | 10. undo     |

**C. Bases**

Another classification of morphemes puts them into two classes: bases and affixes (such as prefixes and suffixes). A base morpheme is the part of a word that has the principal meaning.<sup>2</sup> The italicized morphemes in these words are bases: *denial*, *lov-able*, *annoyance*, *re-enter*. Bases are very numerous, and most of them in English are free morphemes; but some are bound, such as *-sent* in *consent*, *dissent* and *assent*. A word may contain one base and one or more affixes. *Readability*, for example, contains the free base *read* and the two suffixes *-abil-* and *-ity*; and *unmistakable* has the free base *take* and the prefixes *un-* and *mis-*, as well as the suffix *-able*.

**Exercise 8-4**

Underline the bases in these words.

- |             |               |                 |
|-------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 1. womanly  | 6. lighten    | 11. unlikely    |
| 2. endear   | 7. enlighten  | 12. prewar      |
| 3. failure  | 8. friendship | 13. subway      |
| 4. famous   | 9. befriend   | 14. falsify     |
| 5. infamous | 10. Bostonian | 15. unenlivened |

All the bases in the preceding exercise are free bases. Now we will look at bound bases, to which it is sometimes hard to attach a precise meaning. A good number of bound bases in English come from Latin and Greek, such as the *-sent-* in *sentiment*, *sentient*, *consent*, *assent*, *dissent*, *resent*. The standard way to pin

<sup>2</sup>This *ad hoc* definition will do for our present purpose. A more exact definition, which requires terms that you will not meet until later, would go something like this: A base is a linguistic form that meets one or more of these requirements:

1. It can occur as an immediate constituent of a word whose only other immediate constituent is a prefix or suffix.  
**Examples:** *react*, *active*, *fertilize*
2. It is an allomorph of a morpheme which has another allomorph that is a free form.  
**Examples:** *depth* (*deep*), *wolves* (*wolf*)
3. It is a borrowing from another language in which it is a free form or a base.  
**Examples:** *biometrics*, *microcosm*, *phraseology*

The third point is open to the theoretical objection that it imports diachronic lore to clarify a synchronic description.

down the meaning is to search for the meaning common to all the words that contain the base (in these words, *-sent-* means "feel"). A base may have more than one phonemic form. In the above list it has these forms: /sentr-/, /senš-/, /-sent/, and /-zent/. Here is an exercise in this method.

### Exercise 8-5

Write in the blanks the meaning of the italicized bound bases. To be exact, we should write these words below in phonemic script to show the various forms of the base, but this would involve a complication that will be explained later. So here we must be content to indicate the base in a loose way with spelling.

1. audience, audible, audition, auditory \_\_\_\_\_
2. suicide, patricide, matricide, infanticide \_\_\_\_\_
3. oral, oration, oracle, oratory \_\_\_\_\_
4. aquaplane, aquatic, aquarium, aquanaut \_\_\_\_\_
5. photography, biography, calligraphy \_\_\_\_\_
6. corps, corpse, corporation, corporeal \_\_\_\_\_
7. monochrome, monologue, monorail, monogamy \_\_\_\_\_
8. pendulum, pendant, suspenders, impending \_\_\_\_\_
9. manual, manicure, manuscript, manacle \_\_\_\_\_
10. eject, inject, project, reject \_\_\_\_\_

This method can be difficult and baffling. An easier way that often works is to look up in your dictionary the word in question, like *consent*, and in the etymology find out the Latin or Greek meaning of the base. Under *consent* you will find that *-sent* means "feel" in Latin, and this area of meaning seems to have been retained for the base of all the words in the *-sent* list. Also, you will find some of the more common base morphemes listed as separate entries. The following, for example, are all separately entered in *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*: *phot-*, *photo-* (light); *xer-*, *xero-* (dry); *bi-*, *bio-* (life); *mis-*, *miso-* (hatred); *ge-*, *geo-* (earth); *biblio-* (book); *-meter* (measuring device); *tele-*, *tel-* (distance; distant).

### Exercise 8-6

Look up in your desk dictionary the meanings of the bound bases italicized in the words below. Write the meanings of these bound bases in the first column. In the second column write another English word that contains the same base.

1. *geo* *graphy* \_\_\_\_\_
2. *bio* *logy* \_\_\_\_\_
3. *biblio* *phile* \_\_\_\_\_
4. *intervene* \_\_\_\_\_
5. *comprehend* \_\_\_\_\_
6. *recur* \_\_\_\_\_
7. *inspect* \_\_\_\_\_
8. *oppose* \_\_\_\_\_



- |              |       |       |
|--------------|-------|-------|
| 9. inspire   | _____ | _____ |
| 10. rodent   | _____ | _____ |
| 11. portable | _____ | _____ |
| 12. rupture  | _____ | _____ |
| 13. annual   | _____ | _____ |
| 14. carnal   | _____ | _____ |
| 15. bigamy   | _____ | _____ |

### D. Difficulties in Morphemic Analysis

Let us now digress long enough to point out that the identification of morphemes is not as tidy a business as may appear in these exercises and that there are serious, perhaps insoluble, difficulties in morphemic analysis.

The first difficulty is that you have your own individual stock of morphemes just as you have a vocabulary that is peculiarly your own. An example will make this clear. Tom may think of *automobile* as one morpheme meaning "car," whereas Dick may know the morphemes *auto-* (self) and *mobile* (moving), and recognize them in other such words as *autograph* and *mobilize*. Dick, on the other hand, may consider *chronometer* to be a single morpheme, a fancy term for "watch," but Harry sees in this word two morphemes, *chrono-* (time) and *meter* (measure), which he also finds in *chronology* and *photometer*, and Sadie finds a third morpheme *-er* in it, as in *heater*; thus, *mete* (verb) to measure, + *-er*, one who, or that which.

The second difficulty is that persons may know a given morpheme but differ in the degree to which they are aware of its presence in various words. It is likely, for instance, that most speakers of English know the agentive suffix */-ər/* (spelled *-er*, *-or*, *-ar*) meaning "one who, that which," and recognize it in countless words such as *singer* and *actor*. But many may only dimly sense this morpheme in *professor* and completely overlook it in *voucher*, *cracker*, and *tumbler*. Thus, can we say that *sweater* has enough pulse in its *-er* to be considered a two-morpheme word? This will vary with the awareness of different individuals. A less simple case is seen in this group: *nose*, *noseful*, *nosey*, *nasal*, *nuzzle*, *nozzle*, *nostril*, *nasturtium*. Only a linguistically knowledgeable person would see the morpheme *nose* in each of these words. Others will show considerable differences in awareness.

Thus, we conclude that one individual's morphemes are not those of another. This is no cause for deep concern, though it may be a source of controversy in the classroom, for we are dealing with the morphemes of the ENGLISH LANGUAGE, not merely with the individual morpheme inventories of Tom, Dick, Harry, and Sadie.

But in the language itself there are problems of morphemic analysis because the language is constantly changing. One problem is that of obsolescence.

Morphemes may slowly fade away into disuse as the decades and centuries roll by, affecting our view of their morphemehood. For instance, we can be sure that



*troublesome*, *burdensome*, *lonesome*, and *cuddlesome* are two-morpheme words consisting of a base morpheme plus the suffixal morpheme *-some*. *Winsome*, however, has an obsolete base (Old English *wynn*, pleasure, joy), so that the word is now monomorphemic. Between these two extremes are words like *ungainly*. This means of course "not gainly," but what does *gainly* mean? Certainly it is not in common use. In current dictionaries it is called "rare" or "obsolete" or "dialectal," or is unlabeled. Then should we call *ungainly* a word of one or two or even three morphemes?

Another problem results from the fact that metaphors die as language changes. Let us take the morpheme *-prehend-* (seize) as an example. In *apprehend* (= to arrest or seize) and *prehensile* it clearly retains its meaning, but in *comprehend* the metaphor (seize mentally) seems to be dead, and the meaning of the word today is merely "understand." Does it then still contain the morpheme *-prehend-*? Another case is seen in *bankrupt* (bench broken). The morpheme *bank*, in the sense of a bench, may be obsolete, but *-rupt* is alive today in *rupture* and *interrupt*. The original metaphor is dead, however, and the meaning of these two morphemes does not add up at all to the current meaning of *bankrupt*. Is the word then a single morpheme?

This last matter, additive meanings, is a problem in itself. Meaning is very elusive, and when morphemes combine in a word, their meanings tend to be unstable and evanescent; they may even disappear altogether. Consider, for example, the morpheme *pose* (place). In "pose a question" the meaning is clear, and it is probably retained in *interpose* (place between). But in *suppose* and *repose* the meaning appears to have evaporated. Between these extremes are words like *compose*, *depose*, *impose*, *propose*, and *transpose*, in which the sense of *pose* seems to acquire special nuances in combination. Which of all these words, then, may be said to contain the morpheme *pose* (place)? Such are some of the problems in morphemic analysis that have plagued linguists.

### Optional Exercise 8-7

This exercise is an excursus into dead metaphor, simply to show you a fascinating aspect of words that many people are unaware of. Look up the etymology of the following words in your desk dictionary and note the original meaning that underlies the words. A little thought will show you the connection between the original meaning and the present sense.

- |                 |       |              |       |
|-----------------|-------|--------------|-------|
| 1. daisy        | _____ | 6. hazard    | _____ |
| 2. muscle       | _____ | 7. calculate | _____ |
| 3. supercilious | _____ | 8. spurn     | _____ |
| 4. window       | _____ | 9. stimulate | _____ |
| 5. easel        | _____ | 10. stagnate | _____ |

As a practical measure, when we perform morphological analysis, we will work synchronically rather than diachronically. In other words, we will identify morphemes on the basis of what they mean and how they function within our language now, rather than identifying them on the basis of earlier meanings or functions. The reason for a synchronic approach to morphological analysis, especially in an intro-



ductory course, becomes apparent if we consider the complications that might arise from a diachronic consideration. The examples in Exercise 8-7 make this quite clear. For example, in the case of the word *daisy*, it would be unreasonable to expect most people to spot the three morphemes whose historical presence in that word are now barely discernible in its current form and whose historical meanings are no longer a factor in our current perception about the word's meaning.

## E. Affixes

An affix is a bound morpheme that occurs before or within or after a base. There are three kinds: prefixes, infixes, and suffixes, two of which you have already met in passing. Now we will deal with them in greater detail.

Prefixes are those bound morphemes that occur before a base, as in *import*, *prefix*, *reconsider*. Prefixes in English are a small class of morphemes, numbering about seventy-five. Their meanings are often those of English prepositions and adverbials.

### Exercise 8-8

Look up in your desk dictionary each italicized prefix. (Be careful here. If you are looking up the prefix *in-* in a dictionary, you will find various entries for *in*, including the word *in* itself, which you don't want. Prefixes will be indicated as such by a hyphen after the morpheme; thus, *in-*.) Sometimes, when you have located the exact entry you want, you will find several meanings for it. From the meanings given for the prefix, choose the one that fits the word and write it in the first column. In the second column write another word containing the same prefix with the same meaning. Numbers 3, 7, 8, and 11 contain variants of a prefixal morpheme.

- |                        |       |       |
|------------------------|-------|-------|
| 1. <i>antifreeze</i>   | _____ | _____ |
| 2. <i>circumvent</i>   | _____ | _____ |
| 3. <i>copilot</i>      | _____ | _____ |
| <i>collapse</i>        | _____ | _____ |
| <i>compact</i>         | _____ | _____ |
| <i>convene</i>         | _____ | _____ |
| <i>corrode</i>         | _____ | _____ |
| 4. <i>contradict</i>   | _____ | _____ |
| 5. <i>devitalize</i>   | _____ | _____ |
| 6. <i>disagreeable</i> | _____ | _____ |
| 7. <i>insecure</i>     | _____ | _____ |
| <i>imperfect</i>       | _____ | _____ |
| <i>illegible</i>       | _____ | _____ |
| <i>irreverent</i>      | _____ | _____ |
| 8. <i>inspire</i>      | _____ | _____ |
| <i>imbibe</i>          | _____ | _____ |
| 9. <i>intervene</i>    | _____ | _____ |
| 10. <i>intramural</i>  | _____ | _____ |

11. *obstruct*
12. *oppose*
13. *prewar*
14. *postwar*
15. *proceed*
16. *retroactive*
17. *semiprofessional*
18. *subway*
19. *superabundant*
20. *unlikely*
21. *undress*

Infixes are bound morphemes that have been inserted within a word. As a general rule, English does not have infixes, though we should acknowledge a few exceptional cases. Consider, for example, what we find in *un get at able*, where the preposition *at* of *get at* is kept as an infix in the *-able* adjective, though the preposition is usually dropped in similar words, like *reliable* (from *rely on*) and *accountable* (from *account for*). It might be tempting to consider as infixes the replacive vowels that occur in a few noun plurals, like the *-ee-* in *geese*, replacing the *-oo-* of *goose*, or those that occur in the past tense and past participles of some verbs, like the *-o-* of *chose* and *chosen* replacing the *-oo-* of *choose*. But these are more precisely "replacive allomorphs" and will not be considered to be infixes. These allomorphs will be examined later.

Suffixes are bound morphemes that occur after a base, such as *shrinkage*, *failure*, *noisy*, *realize*, *nails*, *dreamed*. Suffixes may pile up to the number of three or four, whereas prefixes are commonly single, except for the negative *un-* before another prefix. In *normalizers* we perhaps reach the limit with four suffixes<sup>3</sup>: the base *norm* plus the four suffixes *-al*, *-ize*, *-er*, *-s*. When suffixes multiply like this, their order is fixed: there is one and only one order in which they occur.

#### Exercise 8-9

In these words the base is italicized. After each word write the number of suffixes it contains.

- |                         |                             |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. <i>organists</i>     | 6. <i>contradictorily</i>   |
| 2. <i>personalities</i> | 7. <i>trusteeship</i>       |
| 3. <i>flirtatiously</i> | 8. <i>greasier</i>          |
| 4. <i>atomizers</i>     | 9. <i>countrified</i>       |
| 5. <i>friendliest</i>   | 10. <i>responsibilities</i> |

<sup>3</sup> There is, however, the widely noted though highly contrived example of the word *antidisestablishmentarianism*, which contains five suffixes and two prefixes.



### Exercise 8-10

Each group contains a base and suffixes. Make each into a word. In each case see if more than one order of suffixes is possible.

1. -ed, live, -en
2. -ing, -ate, termin
3. -er, -s, mor, -al, -ize
4. provinc, -s, -ism, -ial
5. -ly, -some, grue
6. -ity, work, -able
7. in, -most, -er
8. marry, -age, -ity, -abil
9. -dom, -ster, gang
10. -ly, -ion, -ate, affect

## F. Inflectional Suffixes

The inflectional suffixes can be schematized as follows:

Inflectional Suffix	Examples	Name
1. {-s pl}	dogs, bushes	noun plural
2. {-s sg ps}	boy's	noun singular possessive
3. {-s pl ps}	boys', men's	noun plural possessive
4. {-s 3d}	runs, catches	present third-person singular
5. {-ING vb}	discussing	present participle
6. {-D pt}	chewed	past tense
7. {-D pp}	chewed, eaten	past participle
8. {-ER cp}	bolder, sooner, nearer	comparative
9. {-EST sp}	boldest, soonest, nearest	superlative

The words to which these suffixes are attached are called stems. The stem includes the base or bases and all the derivational affixes. Thus, the stem of *cowboys* is *cowboy* and that of *beautified* is *beautify*.

The above chart should be accompanied by a few observations. The chart does not contain alternate forms that are sometimes used for the plural, past tense, or past participle. Thus although the plural inflection -s as in *dogs* is listed, there are some exceptional plural forms such as the -en of *oxen* (once a common inflection in English) and the non-inflectional inner vowel change of *mice*, which are not included in the chart. Similarly, although most past tense and past participle forms end in the inflectional -ed, there are some non-inflected forms that alter the vowel of the verb base, as happens in the forms *sang* and *sung*. Rather than list the kinds of exceptional forms that occur in addition to the typical inflectional forms that characterize

such notions as plural or past, we have listed only the inflectional suffixes that typically characterize such notions and noted here that there are alternate forms that sometimes occur.

The overlapping form *-ed* for both the past tense and past participle does not normally cause a problem for interpretation, because the grammatical context of the two is different. For example, compare the difference between the past tense usage in "Jane composed the song" and the past participle usage in "Jane has composed the song" or "The music was composed (by Jane)." Furthermore, although *-ed* is the inflectional past participle form with regular verbs, the suffix *-en* occurs in the past participle with a number of irregular verbs such as *driven*, *written*, *eaten*. Because of this and because the inflectional *-en* can in some cases serve to distinguish the past participle from the past tense, we will list it as an alternate inflectional suffix form for the past participle. But we caution the reader to remember that past participles come in a variety of forms, some of which do not even utilize the *-ed* or *-en* suffixes.

Inflectional suffixes are not the only kind of suffix. English also has derivational suffixes such as the *-ish* in the word *childish*. Before looking at derivational suffixes in greater detail, we will first consider those ways in which the inflectional suffixes are different from derivational suffixes.

The inflectional suffixes differ from the derivational suffixes in the following ways, to which there are few exceptions.

1. They do not change the part of speech.

**Examples:** sled, sleds (both nouns)  
cough, coughed (both verbs)  
cold, colder (both adjectives)

2. They come last in a word when they are present.

**Examples:** waited, villainies, industrializing

3. They go with all stems of a given part of speech.

**Examples:** He eats, drinks, dreams, entertains, motivates.

4. They do not pile up; only one ends a word.

**Examples:** flakes, working, higher, written

An exception here is {s pl ps}, the plural possessive of the noun, as in "the students' worries."

### Exercise 8-11

Write the morphemic symbol and name for each italicized inflectional suffix below.

1. The flagpole remained *ed* in front of Main Hall.
2. Four pledges were initiated.
3. Shirley pledges to do her best.
4. The pledge's shirt was torn.
5. The pledges' shirts were torn.
6. We were discussing the editorial.
7. The novel was shorter than I had expected.



8. They waited at the dock. \_\_\_\_\_
9. Which is the longest route? \_\_\_\_\_
10. Have you taken calculus yet? \_\_\_\_\_
11. Chris played well in the second set. \_\_\_\_\_
12. The dealer weighed the poultry. \_\_\_\_\_
13. Would you mind repeating the question? \_\_\_\_\_
14. The sheets were soon ironed. \_\_\_\_\_
15. He never locks the door. \_\_\_\_\_

### G. Derivational Suffixes

As has been noted, in addition to the short list of inflectional suffixes, English has a large supply of another kind of suffix, called derivational suffixes. These consist of all the suffixes that are not inflectional. Among the characteristics of derivational suffixes there are three that will be our immediate concern.

1. The words with which derivational suffixes combine is an arbitrary matter. To make a noun from the verb *adorn* we must add *-ment*—no other suffix will do—whereas the verb *fail* combines only with *-ure* to make a noun, *failure*.

#### Exercise 8-12

The left-hand column contains ten words. The right-hand column contains thirteen derivational suffixes used to make nouns and having the general meanings of “state, condition, quality, or act of.” By combining these suffixes with the words listed, make as many nouns as you can.

- |              |           |           |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| 1. happy     | 1. -hood  | 11. -ance |
| 2. friend    | 2. -acy   | 12. -th   |
| 3. boy       | 3. -ism   | 13. -ure  |
| 4. compose   | 4. -ness  |           |
| 5. shrink    | 5. -ment  |           |
| 6. active    | 6. -age   |           |
| 7. supreme   | 7. -y     |           |
| 8. true      | 8. -ation |           |
| 9. pagan     | 9. -ship  |           |
| 10. discover | 10. -ity  |           |

Nouns: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

2. In many cases, but not all, a derivational suffix changes the part of speech of the word to which it is added. The noun *act* becomes an adjective by the addition of *-ive*, and to the adjective *active* we can add *-ate*, making it a verb, *activate*. Although we have not yet taken up the parts of speech, you probably know enough about them to distinguish between nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, as you are asked to do in the next exercise.

**Exercise 8-13**

The words in the second column are formed by the addition of a derivational suffix to those in the first column. After every word in both columns indicate its part-of-speech classification by N (noun), V (verb), Aj (adjective), or Av (adverb). Some of the words may belong to more than one part of speech.

1. break	_____	breakage	_____
2. desire	_____	desirable	_____
3. conspire	_____	conspiracy	_____
4. rehearse	_____	rehearsal	_____
5. ideal	_____	idealize	_____
6. false	_____	falsify	_____
7. sweet	_____	sweetly	_____
8. doubt	_____	doubtful	_____
9. mouth	_____	mouthful	_____
10. sing	_____	singer	_____
11. familiarize	_____	familiarization	_____
12. passion	_____	passionate	_____
13. host	_____	hostess	_____
14. gloom	_____	gloomy	_____
15. martyr	_____	martyrdom	_____
16. novel	_____	novelist	_____
17. day	_____	daily	_____
18. prohibit	_____	prohibitory	_____
19. excel	_____	excellent	_____
20. create	_____	creative	_____
21. vision	_____	visionary	_____
22. cube	_____	cubic	_____
23. ripe	_____	ripen	_____
24. real	_____	realism	_____
25. accept	_____	acceptance	_____

3. Derivational suffixes usually do not close off a word; that is, after a derivational suffix one can sometimes add another derivational suffix and can frequently add an inflectional suffix. For example, to the word *fertilize*, which ends in a derivational suffix, one can add another one, *-er*, and to *fertilizer* one can add the inflectional suffix *-s*, closing off the word.



**Exercise 8-14**

Add a derivational suffix to each of these words, which already end in a derivational suffix.

1. reasonable \_\_\_\_\_
2. formal \_\_\_\_\_
3. organize \_\_\_\_\_
4. purify \_\_\_\_\_
5. realist \_\_\_\_\_

**Exercise 8-15**

Add an inflectional suffix, one of those listed on page 95, to each of these words, which end in derivational suffixes. In the third column put any words you can think of that are formed by a suffix following the inflectional suffix you added in the second column.

- |               |       |       |
|---------------|-------|-------|
| 1. kindness   | _____ | _____ |
| 2. beautify   | _____ | _____ |
| 3. quarterly  | _____ | _____ |
| 4. popularize | _____ | _____ |
| 5. depth      | _____ | _____ |
| 6. pressure   | _____ | _____ |
| 7. arrival    | _____ | _____ |
| 8. orientate  | _____ | _____ |
| 9. friendly   | _____ | _____ |
| 10. funny     | _____ | _____ |

A glance in the dictionary will reveal that many words have relatives, close and distant, and in grammatical study it is often necessary to examine families of related words. To label such families we employ the word *paradigm*. There are two kinds of paradigms, inflectional and derivational. The inflectional will be explained in greater detail later. The derivational paradigm is a set of related words composed of the same base morpheme and all the derivational affixes that can go with this base. Here is an example: *man*, *manly*, *mannish*, *manful*, *manhood*, *manikin*, *unman*, *manliness*, *manward*, *manfully*, *mannishly*.

**Exercise 8-16**

You are given here five bases, or words with their bases italicized. Give all the words in the derivational paradigm of each. Do not include words with two bases, like *manhunt* or *manpower*. (Use other paper for this exercise.)

1. sin
2. kind
3. live /layv/
4. transport (-port = carry)
5. audible (aud- = hear)

## H. Suffixal Homophones

Some suffixes, both inflectional and derivational, have homophonous forms.

The inflectional morpheme {-ER cp} has two homophones. The first is the derivational suffix {-ER n}, which is attached to verbs to form nouns. This is a highly productive suffix, that is, it is used to produce hundreds of English nouns, such as *hunter, fisher, camper, golfer, lover*. It is often called the agent *-er* and conveys a meaning of "that which performs the action of the verb stem," as in *thriller* and *teacher*. It may also be attached to nonverbal stems, such as *probationer, New Yorker, teenager, freighter*. The *-er* on such words could be said to convey a more general meaning of "that which is related to"; and because this meaning is inclusive of the previous one, both these *-er* suffixes can be considered to belong to {-ER n}.

The second derivational *-er* morpheme appears at the end of such words as *chatter, mutter, flicker, glitter, patter*. This {-ER rp} conveys the meaning of repetition. The acceptance of this {-ER rp}, however, is problematic and raises questions about the analysis of the remainders in words of this class. For example, if the *-er* in *glitter* is a morpheme meaning repetition, we are left with the remainder *glitt-*, whose morphemic status is dubious.

### Exercise 8-17

Identify the italicized *-er* as

1. {-ER cp} inflectional suffix, as in *bigger*
2. {-ER n} derivational suffix, as in *singer*
3. {-ER rp} derivational suffix, as in *flutter*

1. This is a heavier tennis racket than I want. \_\_\_\_\_
2. We watched the shimmer of the evening light on the waves. \_\_\_\_\_
3. The fighter weighed in at 180 pounds. \_\_\_\_\_
4. He was tougher than he looked. \_\_\_\_\_
5. The jabber of voices came through the open door. \_\_\_\_\_

The verbal inflectional suffix {-ING vb} has two homophones in *-ing*. The first one is the nominal derivational suffix {-ING nm}, which is found in words such as *meetings, weddings, readings*. This nominal {-ING nm} is obviously derivational, because it permits the addition of an inflectional suffix to close it off, the noun plural {-s pl}. When such a word occurs alone without the inflectional suffix, e.g., *meeting*, the *-ing* is ambiguous, for it could be either {-ING vb}, as in "He was meeting the train" or {-ING nm}, as in "He attended the meeting."

The second homophone of {-ING vb} is the adjectival morpheme {-ING aj}, as in *a charming woman*. There are two tests by which the verbal {-ING vb} can be distinguished from the adjectival {-ING aj}.

The verbal {-ING vb} can usually occur after as well as before the noun it modifies, for example,



I saw a burning house.  
I saw a house burning.

The adjectival {-ING aj} can be preceded by a qualifier such as *very*, *rather*, *quite*, or by the comparative and superlative words *more* and *most*, as in

It is a very comforting thought.  
This is a more exciting movie.

but not

\*I saw a rather burning house.

Also, compare

that interesting snake  
that crawling snake.

The adjectival {-ING aj} can occur after *seems*:

That snake seems interesting,

whereas the verbal {-ING vb} cannot:

\*That snake seems crawling.

Here and throughout the next chapters treating morphology and syntax, we will follow the conventional practice of using an asterisk (\*), as we have done in the examples above, to indicate that a following phrase or clause is "ungrammatical." In this context, the term "ungrammatical" means that a native speaker of the language would normally not produce such an utterance and would not consider it to be well-formed.

### Exercise 8-18

Identify the *-ing*'s of the italicized words by these symbols:

V-al = verbal {-ING vb}

N-al = nominal {-ING nm}

Aj-al = adjectival {-ING aj}

1. It was a *charming* spot. \_\_\_\_\_
2. Jim lost both *fillings* from his tooth. \_\_\_\_\_
3. She saw the *waiting* cab. \_\_\_\_\_
4. It was *exciting* to watch the flight. \_\_\_\_\_
5. Old *sayings* are often half-true. \_\_\_\_\_
6. From the bridge we watched the *running* water. \_\_\_\_\_
7. That *barking* dog keeps everyone awake. \_\_\_\_\_
8. He told a *convincing* tale. \_\_\_\_\_
9. The *shining* sun gilded the forest floor. \_\_\_\_\_
10. Matisse's *drawings* are magnificently simple. \_\_\_\_\_
11. A *refreshing* shower poured down. \_\_\_\_\_

12. The attorney made a *moving* appeal.
13. A *moving* elephant is a picture of grace.
14. What an *obliging* fellow he is!
15. That was a *touching* scene.

**Oral Exercise 8-A**

There is an old joke that plays off the verbal versus adjectival sense of a word using the inflectional suffix *-ing*. In the joke, a mother of a student asks a teacher whether the student is trying. The teacher responds, "Yes. Very!" In this joke the qualifier *very* plays a critical role in triggering the punchline and changing our interpretation of how the word *trying* is being used. Explain the two interpretations of *trying* and how the use of *very* triggers a punchline with a specific interpretation.

The verbal inflectional {-D pp} has a homophone in the adjectival derivational {-D aj}, as in

Helen was *excited* about her new job.  
She was a *devoted* mother.<sup>4</sup>

The adjectival {-D aj} is characterized by its capacity for modification by qualifiers such as *very*, *rather*, *quite*, and by *more* and *most*.

**Example:** A *rather faded* tapestry hung over the fireplace.

The verbal {-D pp}, on the other hand, does not accept such modifiers. We would not, for example, say

\*The *very departed* guests had forgotten their dog.

The *seems* test for adjectival {-ING aj} is applicable to adjectival {-D aj}; for example, "The tapestry *seems faded*" but not \*"The guests *seem departed*."

**Exercise 8-19**

Identify the suffixes of the italicized words with these symbols: V-al = {-D pp}; Aj-al = {-D aj}.

1. You should read the *printed* statement.
2. Merle was a *neglected* child.
3. This is a *complicated* question.
4. His *chosen* bride had lived in India.
5. He bought a *stolen* picture.
6. The *invited* guests all came.
7. We had a *reserved* seat.

<sup>4</sup> {-D aj} is considered derivational because it often can be followed by another suffix, e.g., *excitedly*, *devotedness*.



8. The skipper was a *reserved* (= quiet) man. \_\_\_\_\_
9. A *celebrated* painter visited the campus. \_\_\_\_\_
10. A *worried* look crossed his face. \_\_\_\_\_

### Exercise 8-20

Ambiguity occurs when the *-ed* suffix can be interpreted as either {-D pp} or {-D aj}. This exercise will illustrate. For each sentence below write two meanings.

1. He had a finished table.
  - a. \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. \_\_\_\_\_
2. The animal was spotted.
  - a. \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. \_\_\_\_\_

The adverbial derivational suffix {-LY av} is added to most adjectives to form adverbs of manner, as in *rich, richly; kind, kindly; formal, formally; happy, happily*. A small group of adjectives does not take this {-LY av}, among them *big, small, little, tall, long, fast*.

This adverbial {-LY av} has as a homophone the derivational suffix {-LY aj}, an adjectival morpheme that is distributed as follows:

1. It is added to monosyllabic nouns to form adjectives that are inflected with *-er, -est*.

**Examples:** love, lovely; friend, friendly; man, manly

2. It is added to nouns to form adjectives that are not inflected with *-er, -est*.

**Examples:** king, kingly; beast, beastly; scholar, scholarly; mother, motherly; leisure, leisurely

3. It is added to a few adjectives, giving alternate adjectival forms that are also inflected with *-er, -est*.

**Examples:** dead, deadly; live, lively; kind, kindly; sick, sickly

Here the adjectives *kindly* and *lively* are homophonous with the adverbs

*kindly* and *lively*, which end in {-LY av}. For example, we see the adverb in

"She spoke kindly to the children," and the adjective in "She was a kindly woman; in fact, she was the kindest woman in the village."

4. It is added to a short list of "time" nouns to form adjectives.

**Examples:** day, daily; hour, hourly; month, monthly

These are not inflected with *-er, -est*, and some of them undergo functional shift to become nouns, e.g., "He subscribes to two dailies and three quarterlies."

### Exercise 8-21

Identify the italicized *-ly* as either (1) {-LY av} adverbial derivational suffix, as in *glumly*; or (2) {-LY aj} adjectival derivational suffix, as in *fatherly*.

1. The witness testified *falsely*.
2. Grace has a *deadly* wit.
3. Janet always behaved with a *maidenly* demeanor.
4. He tiptoes *softly* into the room.
5. Jimmy receives a *weekly* allowance.
6. The dear old lady has a *heavenly* disposition.
7. She spoke *quietly* to her grandson.
8. What a *timely* suggestion!
9. What a *mannerly* child!
10. It was a *cowardly* act.

**Exercise 8-22**

This is an exercise reviewing the inflectional and derivational suffixes. Label the italicized suffixes as DS (derivational suffix), IS (inflectional suffix), or Amb (ambiguous between a derivational or inflectional suffix).

- |               |       |                 |       |
|---------------|-------|-----------------|-------|
| 1. princes    | _____ | 11. quickly     | _____ |
| 2. princess   | _____ | 12. rectify     | _____ |
| 3. findings   | _____ | 13. brotherly   | _____ |
| 4. friendlier | _____ | 14. respectable | _____ |
| 5. shows      | _____ | 15. younger     | _____ |
| 6. weaver     | _____ | 16. hearing     | _____ |
| 7. leaner     | _____ | 17. drier       | _____ |
| 8. satirize   | _____ | 18. grievance   | _____ |
| 9. sputter    | _____ | 19. droppings   | _____ |
| 10. brighten  | _____ | 20. sunny       | _____ |

**I. Noun Feminine Forms**

English has a small group of nouns with feminine derivational suffixes. All but one of these feminizing suffixes (*-ster*) are of foreign origin. They have been added to a masculine form or to a base morpheme. Here is a list of most of them, with examples of the feminine nouns to which they have been attached and the corresponding masculine forms.

Suffix	Masculine	Feminine
1. -e	fiancé	fiancée
2. -enne	comedian	comédienne
3. -ess	patron	patroness
4. -etta	Henry	Henrietta
5. -ette	usher	usherette <sup>5</sup>

<sup>5</sup> The suffix *-ette* is now more commonly used as a diminutive, as in *kitchenette*.



6. -euse	masseur	masseuse
7. -ina	George	Georgina
8. -ine	hero	heroine
9. -ster	spinner	spinster
10. -stress	seamster	seamstress (= -ster + -ess)
11. -ix	aviator	aviatrix

These suffixes vary in vitality from *-ess*, the most productive, to *-stress*, which as a feminine suffix is completely dead, that is to say, it is no longer used to form new words. Two of them, *-enne* and *-euse*, occur only in words borrowed from French. The *-e*, also from French, is merely orthographic and is not heard in the spoken word. The *-ster* is no longer a feminizing suffix; it now indicates any person, whether male or female: *gangster*, *youngster*, *prankster*.

The feminine suffixes listed above and the words they help form must be used judiciously. This caution applies not only to obviously offensive words such as *spinster*, but even to such seemingly harmless forms as *poetess*. Although some individuals are unconcerned about morphological forms that distinguish women from men, others see such distinctions as unnecessary and perhaps even demeaning to women. But because feminine endings are still in use and common in earlier texts, it is still important for us to be familiar with them.

In addition to what has been discussed the above, English also has about fifty pairs of words with separate forms for the masculine and the feminine, e.g., *bull*, *cow*; *uncle*, *aunt*; *gander*, *goose*. But these are a matter of lexicography rather than morphology, and we will pass them by.

### Exercise 8-23

Consulting a dictionary and the suffix list above, write the feminine form (or erstwhile feminine form) of these words.

- |               |       |                |       |
|---------------|-------|----------------|-------|
| 1. Paul       | _____ | 9. Carol       | _____ |
| 2. chanteur   | _____ | 10. emperor    | _____ |
| 3. protégé    | _____ | 11. launderer  | _____ |
| 4. czar       | _____ | 12. executor   | _____ |
| 5. songster   | _____ | 13. proprietor | _____ |
| 6. major      | _____ | 14. waiter     | _____ |
| 7. heir       | _____ | 15. tragedian  | _____ |
| 8. equestrian | _____ |                |       |

## J. Noun Diminutive Forms

In English six diminutive suffixes can be found. There are morphemes that convey a meaning of smallness or endearment or both. They are the following:

- |                       |  |
|-----------------------|--|
| 1. -ie, -i, -y        | as in <i>auntie</i> , <i>Betty</i> , <i>sweetie</i> , <i>Willy</i> |
| 2. -ette              | as in <i>dinette</i> , <i>towelette</i>                            |
| 3. -kin, -ikin, -kins | as in <i>babykins</i>  |
| 4. -ling              | as in <i>duckling</i> , <i>darling</i> (= little dear)             |
| 5. -et                | as in <i>circlet</i>   |
| 6. -let               | as in <i>booklet</i> , <i>starlet</i>                              |

The vowels of these diminutive suffixes are three front vowels: /i/, /ɪ/, and /ɛ/.

The first suffix, pronounced /i/ and spelled -ie, -i, and -y, is highly productive. It is frequently attached to one-syllable first names to suggest endearment and intimacy, or smallness, as in *Johnny*, *Janey*, *Jackie*, and *Mikey*. Similarly, it is attached to common nouns, sometimes indicating a diminutive notion about a participant in a discourse more than about the person or thing being referred to, as in *doggie*, *sweetie*, *birdie*, or *mommy*.<sup>6</sup>

The second suffix is also in active use, generally to indicate smallness. Thus, a *dinette* is a small dining area, and a *roomette* is a small room.

The other four diminutive suffixes exist in the language as diminutives but are rarely if ever added to new nouns. In short, they are unproductive, inactive. Furthermore, in some words, such as *cabinet* and *toilet*, the meaning of the diminutive suffix has faded away to little or no significance.

#### Exercise 8-24

Consulting a dictionary and the suffix list above, give a noun diminutive form for each of the following words.

- |                 |                |                 |
|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. Bob _____    | 6. lamb _____  | 11. hatch _____ |
| 2. goose _____  | 7. pack _____  | 12. drop _____  |
| 3. statue _____ | 8. pup _____   | 13. lad _____   |
| 4. pig _____    | 9. eagle _____ | 14. disk _____  |
| 5. dear _____   | 10. Ann _____  | 15. cigar _____ |

In addition to these six diminutives, many others have come into English as a part of borrowed words. These were diminutives in their own or parent language but are nonmorphemic in English. For illustration, here is a handful of them.

mosquito	panel	Venezuela
bambino	morsel	quartet
armadillo	damsel	bulletin (two successive diminutives here)

<sup>6</sup>Warning to students: Some of these diminutive suffixes have homophones that can be a source of confusion. Here, for instance, are four of them:

1. -y, an adjective-forming suffix added to a noun, as in *cloudy*.
2. -ie, a noun-forming suffix added to an adjective, as in *smartie*, *toughie*.
3. -ette, a feminine suffix, as in *majorette*.
4. -ling, a noun suffix denoting a particular characteristic or affiliation, as in *weakling* or *earthling*.



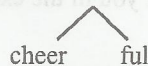
peccadillo	scalpel	false
flotilla	satchel	stiletto
Priscilla	muscle	Maureen
cookie	particle	lochan
colonel	pupil	formula
citadel	violin	capsule
novel (noun)	violoncello	calculus
	puppet	

Most of these borrowed diminutive endings, you will observe, contain the vowels /i/, /ɪ/, and /ɛ/, though these vowels have often been reduced to /ə/ in English because of lack of stress. Only the last four do not have a front vowel or /ə/ in the diminutive suffix. Furthermore, nearly all these suffixes have lost the diminutive sense that was once alive in them.

### K. Immediate Constituents

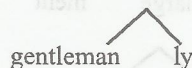
Up to this point we have scrutinized the four sorts of morphemes—bases, prefixes, infixes, and suffixes—of which words are composed. Now we will see how these are put together to build the structure that we call a word.

A word of one morpheme, like *blaze*, has, of course, just one unitary part. A word of two morphemes, like *cheerful*, is obviously composed of two parts, with the division between them:

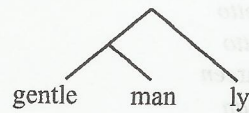


But a word of three or more morphemes is not made up of a string of individual parts; it is built with a hierarchy of twosomes. As an illustration let us examine the formation of *gentlemanly*, a word of three morphemes. We might say that *man* and *-ly* were combined to form *manly* and that *gentle* and *manly* were then put together to produce the form *gentlemanly*. But the total meaning of *gentlemanly* does not seem to be composed of the meanings of its two parts *gentle* and *manly*, so we reject this possibility. Let's try again. This time we'll say that *gentle* and *man* were put together to give *gentleman*. And if we remember that *gentle* has the meanings of "distinguished," "belonging to a high social station," we see that the meaning of *gentleman* is a composite of those of its two constituents. Now we add *-ly*, meaning "like," and get *gentlemanly*, like a gentleman. This manner of forming *gentlemanly* seems to make sense.

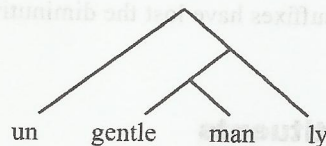
Now when we analyze a word we show this process but in reverse. We usually divide a word into two parts of which it seems to have been composed. Thus



We continue in this way, cutting every part into two more until we have reduced the word to its ultimate constituents, that is, to the unit morphemes of which it is composed. Our analysis of *gentlemanly* would look like this:



Next, let us suppose that the word to be analyzed is *ungentlemanly*. If we make the same first cut as before, cutting off the *-ly*, we get *ungentleman* plus *-ly*. But as English contains no such word as *ungentleman*, our word could not be composed of the two parts *ungentleman* and *-ly*. Instead, let's cut after the *un-*. This gives *un-* plus *gentlemanly*, a common English negative prefix plus a recognizable English word. This seems to be the right way to begin, and as we continue we get this analysis.

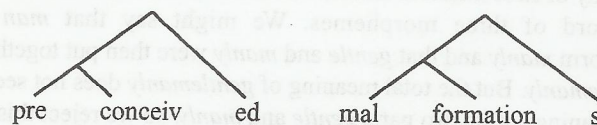


We have now shown the layers of structure by which the word has been composed, down to the ultimate constituents—*un-*, *gentle*, *man*, and *-ly*.

In doing word diagrams like those above to show layers of structure, we make successive divisions into two parts, each of which is called an immediate constituent, abbreviated IC. The process is continued until all component morphemes of a word, the ultimate constituents, have been isolated.

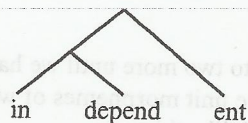
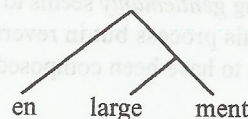
Here are three recommendations on IC division that will assist you in the exercise to follow:

1. If a word ends in an inflectional suffix, the first cut is between this suffix and the rest of the word. So:

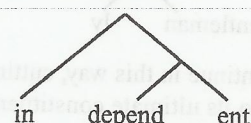
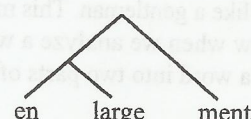


2. One of the ICs should be, if possible, a free form. A free form is one that can be uttered alone with meaning, e.g., *enlarge*, *dependent*, *supportable*. Here are examples of wrong and right first cuts:

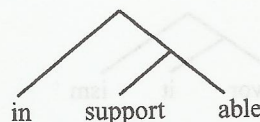
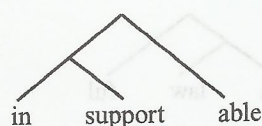
Wrong:



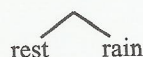
Right:



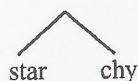




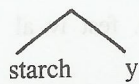
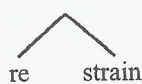
3. The meanings of the ICs should be related to the meaning of the word. It would be wrong to cut *restrain* like this:



because neither *rest* nor *rain* has a semantic connection with *restrain*. Nor would a division of *starchy* as



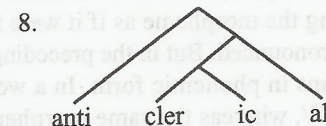
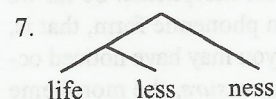
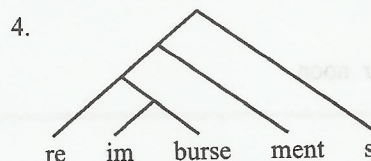
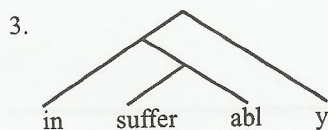
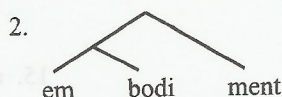
be right because this would give an unrelated morpheme and a meaningless fragment. The two examples are properly cut in this way:



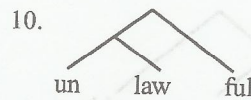
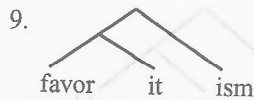
The ultimate constituents are the morphemes of which the word is composed.

### Exercise 8-25

One of the following IC diagrams showing the layers of structure is wrong. Which one is it and why?



## 110 Morphemes



### Exercise 8-26

Diagram these words to show the layers of structure.

1. item ize d
2. pre pro fess ion al
3. news paper dom
4. counter de clar ation
5. mal con struc tion
6. contra dict ory
7. dis en throne
8. mid after noon
9. Ice land ic
10. super natur al
11. un com fort able
12. fest iv al
13. en gag ing
14. ex press ion ism
15. mis judg ment

## L. Allomorphs

It is now time to sharpen and extend our understanding of the morpheme. So far we have been treating the morpheme as if it were invariable in phonemic form, that is, in the way it is pronounced. But in the preceding exercises you may have noticed occasional variations in phonemic form. In a word such as *pressure*, the morpheme {press} ends in /ʃ/, whereas the same morpheme standing alone as the word *press*



ends in /s/. Likewise, the first morpheme in *depth* is pronounced /dep/, but the same morpheme occurring as the word *deep* has the phonemic form of /dip/. So we see that a morpheme may have more than one phonemic form.

Next we'll go back to the past-tense ending, the morpheme {-D pt}. We learned in exercise 2-3 of the phonology section that this morpheme has three phonemic forms, the choice depending on the preceding sound. After an alveolar stop, /t/ or /d/, the sound is /əd/, as in *parted* /partəd/ and *faded* /fedəd/. After a voiceless consonant other than /t/ it is /t/, as in *passed* /pæst/ and *laughed* /læft/. After a voiced sound other than /d/ it is /d/, as in *seemed* /simd/ and *begged* /bɛgd/. Furthermore, these three phonemic forms of {-D pt} are not interchangeable. The occurrence of one or another of them depends on its phonological environment, in this case, the preceding sound. This pattern of occurrence of related forms, according to which each form occupies its own territory and does not trespass on the domain of another, is called complementary distribution. When the related forms of a set, like the three forms of {-D pt}, have the same meaning and are in complementary distribution, they are called allomorphs, or positional variants, and belong to the same morpheme. So we say that the morpheme {-D pt} has three allomorphs: /-əd/, /-t/, and /-d/. This is expressed in the formula:

$$\{-D \text{ pt}\} = /-əd/ \sim /-t/ \sim /-d/$$

Braces are used for morphemes and slants for allomorphs; a tilde (~) means "in alternation with." It must be emphasized that many morphemes in English have only one phonemic form, that is, one allomorph—for example, the morphemes {boy} and {hood} each have one allomorph—/bɔɪ/ and /-hʊd/—as in *boyhood*.

Now we are in a position to refine our understanding of free and bound morphemes. It is really not the morpheme but the allomorph that is free or bound. Consider, for example, the morpheme {louse}. This has two allomorphs: the free allomorph /laʊs/ as a singular noun and the bound allomorph /laʊz-/ in the adjective *lousy*.

### Exercise 8-27

Each pair of words here contains one free and one bound allomorph of the same morpheme. Indicate the morpheme in braces and write each allomorph between slants in phonemic script.

	Morpheme	Free allomorph	Bound allomorph
<b>Example: long, length</b>	{long}	/laŋ/ (or /lɔŋ/)	/leŋ-/
1. strong, strength	_____	_____	_____
2. chaste, chastity	_____	_____	_____
3. courage, courageous	_____	_____	_____
4. Bible, Biblical	_____	_____	_____
5. wife, wives	_____	_____	_____

### Exercise 8-28

Explain why *a/an* are allomorphs of one morpheme.

**Exercise 8-29**

Write the base morpheme and its allomorphs for each group. Supply primary stresses in answers that contain varying stress.

**Examples:** steal, stealth {steal} = /stil/ ~ /steɪ-/

1. wide, width \_\_\_\_\_
2. broad, breadth \_\_\_\_\_
3. wolf, wolves \_\_\_\_\_
4. áble, ability \_\_\_\_\_
5. supreme, supremacy \_\_\_\_\_
6. divine, divinity \_\_\_\_\_
7. fame, fámous, ínfamy, ínfamous \_\_\_\_\_
8. vision, televise, revise \_\_\_\_\_
9. sun, sunny, sunward \_\_\_\_\_
10. átom, atómic \_\_\_\_\_

**Exercise 8-30**

This exercise, related to exercise 2-2, concerns the plural morpheme {-s pl}, which (we'll say for the moment) has three allomorphs. Write out each plural word in phonemic script. Then, using these as evidence, list the allomorphs of {-s pl} and describe their complementary distribution.

- |                 |                  |                    |
|-----------------|------------------|--------------------|
| 1. sons _____   | 6. fizzes _____  | 11. churches _____ |
| 2. naps _____   | 7. dishes _____  | 12. gorges _____   |
| 3. passes _____ | 8. garages _____ | 13. sums _____     |
| 4. hogs _____   | 9. hoes _____    | 14. heaths _____   |
| 5. sacks _____  | 10. staffs _____ | 15. gongs _____    |

Allomorphs and complementary distribution:

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**M. Conditioning: Phonological and Morphological**

In examining the past-tense morpheme {-D pt}, we saw that the three allomorphs /-əd ~ -d ~ -t/ were in complementary distribution and that this distribution was determined by the phonological environment, in this case by the preceding sound. The same was true of the plural morpheme {-s pl}, where the addition of /-əz/, /-z/, or /-s/ was also determined by the sound immediately preceding the suffix. In these and similar cases, when the phonological environment determines which allomorph is used, we say that the selection of allomorphs is phonologically conditioned.



But the plural morpheme {-s pl} has further allomorphs, as shown by the /-ən/ of *ox-oxen* and by the /Ø/ (zero) suffix of *sheep-sheep*. These two, /-ən/ and /Ø/, are in complementary distribution with all the others in that they stay in their own territory, associate only with specific words, and do not overlap in positions where /-əz/, /-z/, and /-s/ are found. But the positions in which they occur—that is, the words they attach themselves to—have nothing to do with their phonological environment. Instead the use of /-ən/ as the plural of *ox* is determined by the specific morpheme *ox*; in other words, *ox* simply takes /-ən/ and that's that. Likewise, the occurrence of the plural Ø allomorph in a few words—*swine*, *deer*, *sheep*, *trout*, *pike*, *quail*, *grouse*, and others—is determined by the fact that these special morphemes require a Ø plural. In such cases, when we can describe the environment that requires a certain allomorph only by identifying specific morphemes, we say that the selection of allomorphs is morphologically conditioned.

To describe by formula these five allomorphs of {-s pl} we write

$$\{-s \text{ pl}\} = /-əz/ \sim /-z/ \sim /-s/ \infty /-ən/ \infty /Ø/$$

The  $\sim$  refers to a phonologically conditioned alternation and the  $\infty$  to a morphologically conditioned alternation.

### Exercise 8-31

Write the formula to express the fact that the past-tense morpheme {-D pt} has, in the verb *be*, the two morphologically conditioned allomorphs *was* and *were*.

## N. Replacive Allomorphs

Most of the allomorphs we have been dealing with have been additive; that is, we have been forming words by adding prefixes and suffixes to bases. Now we must look at an allomorph of a different kind, the replacive, which can be illustrated by going back to the past-tense {-D pt}. We noted that this morpheme has three allomorphs, /-əd ~ -t ~ -d/. But if this is all, how do we account for forms like *sang*? It would appear to contain an allomorph of {-D pt}, because it is a parallel formation with regular past-tense forms:

Yesterday we *parted* /partəd/  
 Yesterday we *laughed* /læft/  
 Yesterday we *played* /pled/  
 Yesterday we *sang* /sen/ (or /sæŋ/)

What happens is that there is a replacement here instead of an additive. The /ɪ/ of *sing* is replaced by the /e/ (or /æ/) of *sang* to signal the past tense. This is symbolized as follows:

$$/sen/ = /sɪŋ/ + /ɪ > e/$$

<sup>7</sup>The symbol > means "becomes."

Here the /ɪ > e/ is another allomorph of {-ɒ pt}, and you can readily see how it is in complementary distribution with the others. Sometimes replacive allomorphs are called “infixes,” because they are positioned *within* a word, as opposed to prefixes and suffixes, as in *sang* and *rode*. But we will refer to them as replacive allomorphs rather than infixes.

### Exercise 8-32

Write the allomorphic formula for each of the following past-tense forms.

**Examples:** spin, *spun* /spɛn/ = /spɪn/ + /ɪ > ə/

1. see, *saw*
2. begin, *began*
3. bite, *bit*
4. give, *gave*
5. grow, *grew*
6. ride, *rode*
7. grind, *ground*
8. take, *took*
9. tear, *tore*
10. speak, *spoke*

## O. Homophones

You are acquainted with many pairs, trios, and even foursomes of words in English that sound alike but differ in meaning: *heir*, *air*; *pare*, *pair*, *pear*. Such words are called homophones. In morphology it must be remembered that words like these are different morphemes.

**Examples:** Did you like the *meet*? /mit/ (track meet)  
 Did you like the *meat*? /mit/ (roast beef)

The same is true of bound forms. Compare

<b>Verbal inflectional suffix:</b>	It feels /-z/ good
<b>Noun plural inflectional suffix:</b>	Those frogs /-z/
<b>Noun possessive inflectional suffix:</b>	John's /-z/ book

These three homophonous /-z/s are three different morphemes.

### Exercise 8-33

Write the morphemes to which each of these homophonous allomorphs belongs.

**Examples:** /et/ = {ate}  
 /et/ = {eight}



(In a couple of the sets below, some homophones will be spelled the same.)

- |                 |                |
|-----------------|----------------|
| 1. /mit/ _____  | 4. /per/ _____ |
| /mit/ _____     | /per/ _____    |
| /mit/ _____     | /per/ _____    |
| 2. /mayt/ _____ | 5. /pel/ _____ |
| /mayt/ _____    | /pel/ _____    |
| /mayt/ _____    | 6. /tu/ _____  |
| 3. /yu/ _____   | /tu/ _____     |
| /yu/ _____      | /tu/ _____     |
| /yu/ _____      | /tu/ _____     |

## P. Phonesthemes

Phonesthemes are speech sounds that in themselves express, elicit, or suggest meaning. For instance, let us consider a minimal pair, the Chinese words *ch'ing* /čɪŋ/ and *ch'ung* /čʊŋ/. One of these means "heavy," the other "light." The question for you is "Which meaning goes with which word?" If you, like most respondents, say that *ch'ing* means "light" and *ch'ung* means "heavy," you are correct. And because the two words differ only in their vowels, it must be these vowels that elicit the two meanings. These vowels, then, are phonesthemes.

Two of the most common phonesthemes in English are the pair of high front vowels, /i/ and /ɪ/, suggesting smallness. These appear in many words that have smallness as a part of their meaning. Here are a few: *wee*, *peep*, *squeak*, *seep*, *bit*, *jiffy*, *clink*, *teeny*, *giggle*, *dwindle*, and *whimper*. They are also two of the three diminutive vowels in English, as exemplified in *birdie* and *lambkin*.

The presence of the "small" phonesthemes /i/ and /ɪ/ in English is not only known by language students but sensed by the average person. Witness two cases. One cartoon employed these two vowels to make its point. It showed an auto mechanic in a garage talking with an unhappy car owner whose engine had been malfunctioning. The mechanic pointed out, "In car language 'clunk, rattle, thump' means 'too bad you didn't listen when I said 'ping, ping, squeak'!" And a radio comedian presented a large public with this gag: "What do you call a large pipsqueak?" "A poopsquawk."

Another common English phonestheme is the vowel /ə/, as in *dung*, *drudgery*, *flunk*. Professor F. W. Householder, in a study of over six hundred English monosyllables, found that the vowel /ə/ has, in a large majority of cases, the general meaning of "undesirable"<sup>8</sup> These monosyllables will illustrate: *muck*, *gunk*, *dump*, *slum*, *grunt*, *dud*, *klutz*, *glum*, *grudge*. And in words of more than one syllable the meaning of "undesirable" seems to be present in such terms as these: *grumpy*, *grumble*, *blunder*, *clumsy*, *humdrum*, *muddle*, *slovenly*, *puddle*, *lunkhead*.

<sup>8</sup>"On the Problem of Sound Meaning, an English Phonestheme," *Word*, 2:83-84, 1946.

At the beginning of words, a number of consonant clusters appear to have phonesthematic value. Among them are these:

/gl-/ = light. Examples: *glow, glare, glint, gleam, glisten, glitter, glaze*

/fl-/ = moving light. Examples: *flame, flash, flare, flicker*

/sp-/ = point. Examples: *spire, spark, spot, spout, spade*

/sl-/ = movement. Examples: *slide, slink, slosh, slither, slouch, slump*

At the ends of one-syllable words, the voiceless stops /p/, /t/, and /k/ are expressive of an abrupt stoppage of movement. Examples of these are *slap, pat, flick, tap, hit, crack*. In contrast with these, a final voiceless fricative /ʃ/ suggests an un abrupt stoppage of movement, as in *mash* and *squash*. The expressiveness of these sounds becomes especially noticeable when we observe contrasts like these: *clap* vs. *clash*; *bat* vs. *bash*; *smack* vs. *smash*; *crack* vs. *crash*.

At the ends of two-syllable words, we find the phonesthemes /-əl/ and /-ər/, each having the meaning of "repetition." The repetition may be of auditory or visual details. Examples:

/-ər/ *chatter, clatter, gibber, patter, sputter, mutter, jabber, twitter, litter, shatter, flutter, shimmer, stammer*

/-əl/ *babble, giggle, twinkle, waggle, freckle, dribble, juggle, crackle, chuckle, rattle, sparkle, stipple, prattle, wriggle, drizzle*

A speech sound is a phonestheme only when its imputed sense is related to the sense of the word of which it is a part. Thus, as the sense of /i/ and /ɪ/ is related to the sense of *wee* and *drizzle*, these two vowels are phonesthemes in these words. But in words whose meaning does not include smallness, the /i/ and /ɪ/ are merely meaningless vowels. Thus *seat* and *sit* and countless others with /i/ and /ɪ/ do not contain phonesthemes. Some words are doubtful cases. For example, does *whisper* really contain the phonesthemes /ɪ/ for smallness and /-ər/ for repetition?

The existence of phonesthemes is now generally accepted, and although they resemble morphemes in their behavior, they do not satisfy all of the conditions that we proposed at the beginning of this chapter for something to qualify as a morpheme. Therefore we will treat them as a different linguistic feature.

#### Exercise 8-34

The phonesthemes in the following words are underlined. Give the meaning of each.

- |                     |       |                    |       |
|---------------------|-------|--------------------|-------|
| 1. <u>spike</u>     | _____ | 11. <u>glossy</u>  | _____ |
| 2. <u>flicker</u>   | _____ | 12. <u>spatter</u> | _____ |
| 3. <u>glimmer</u>   | _____ | 13. <u>shrink</u>  | _____ |
| 4. <u>nibble</u>    | _____ | 14. <u>warble</u>  | _____ |
| 5. <u>crud</u>      | _____ | 15. <u>ugly</u>    | _____ |
| 6. <u>sulky</u>     | _____ | 16. <u>kid</u>     | _____ |
| 7. <u>snap</u>      | _____ | 17. <u>tack</u>    | _____ |
| 8. <u>splash</u>    | _____ | 18. <u>sniffle</u> | _____ |
| 9. <u>sip</u>       | _____ | 19. <u>slit</u>    | _____ |
| 10. <u>señorita</u> | _____ | 20. <u>jangle</u>  | _____ |



**Oral Exercise 8-B**

The eminent grammarian Otto Jespersen recounts this incident: "One summer, when there was a great drought in Fredriksstad (Norway), the following words were posted in a W.C. [= toilet]: 'Don't pull the string for bimmelin, only for bummelum.' This was immediately understood."<sup>9</sup>

With regard to phonesthemes, explain *why* this was immediately understood.

**Some Observations and Applications**

The reality of morphemes as a minimal unit of meaning is found in the attention that they receive from wordsmiths whose livelihood depends on careful attention to language. Some years ago 7UP had a highly successful advertising campaign that referred to its product as the "Uncola." The label or nickname was memorable at least in part because *un-* is normally combined with adjectives and verbs, not simple nouns. It is, of course, to an advertiser's advantage to use forms or expressions that will be memorable. The 7UP company coined a memorable nickname for its product through a creative use of morphology.

In an article published in *American Speech*, Genine Lentine and Roger Shuy describe their role in defending a business from a trademark infringement lawsuit lodged by McDonald's. The business had tried to use the morpheme *Mc-* in its business name. The McDonald's Corporation asserted ownership of the morpheme, explaining that McDonald's had promoted the morpheme in their advertising and marketing of such food items as McShakes and McFries. Lentine and Shuy, however, argued against McDonald's exclusive ownership of the morpheme, pointing out that *Mc-* has a number of different uses in contemporary American English. In this legal dispute it is clear that the importance of morphemes extends beyond mere academic considerations and can occasionally become an important issue in the legal and business communities.<sup>10</sup>

Morphological analysis can also be helpful in learning vocabulary for special purposes, such as for medical school. Whether you need to learn many specific terms for a class or for a graduate school entrance exam, your ability to learn vocabulary is greatly enhanced if you can intelligently recognize recurring morphemes in a variety of words, rather than approaching each new word as something entirely unrelated to others.

Teachers who are more aware of morphology might also help students who are struggling with spelling to make better choices about how to spell troublesome words. Elizabeth Grubgeld indicates that a student who might spell the word *major* like "majer" because of its pronunciation, would be less likely to misspell the vowel if he or she understood that *major* is part of the word *majority*, in which the pronunciation of the vowel before *r* more clearly reveals the appropriate spelling. Although

<sup>9</sup> "Symbolic Value of the Vowel I" (1922) in *Linguistica* (Copenhagen: Levin and Munksgard, 1933), p. 284.

<sup>10</sup> "Mc-: Meaning in the Marketplace" by Genine Lentine and Roger W. Shuy in *American Speech* 65:4 (1990): 349-366.

she acknowledges that students with a spelling problem may not be skilled in anticipating what other forms of a given word might be, she believes that "with practice and considerable drill on syllabification, compounding, and affixation, they may become more adept at the task."<sup>11</sup> Some teachers already spend time teaching morphology because of the insights it can bring to students as they learn to decode word meanings. But it could be argued that some morphological instruction, if carefully directed, might also have the additional application to spelling instruction.

This chapter has discussed phonesthemes such as *gl-* and even *p-*. The phenomenon of meaning associated with phonesthemes, sometimes known as "sound symbolism," has also proven to be useful in the business world. One entrepreneur has identified important aspects of sound symbolism and formed a business that helps companies to develop product names based on the meaning that people associate with particular sounds.<sup>12</sup>

<sup>11</sup> "Helping the Problem Speller Without Suppressing the Writer" by Elizabeth Grubgeld in *English Journal* (Feb. 1986) as reprinted in *Linguistics for Teachers*, eds. Linda Miller Cleary and Michael D. Linn. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1993.

<sup>12</sup> "There's More to a Name" by Bob Cohen in the *Stanford Business School Magazine* 63:3 (1995): 9.



## Words

One of the interesting things about word compounds is that their meaning is not predictable through examining their individual word parts. We learn the meaning of compounds as a unit. Of course, if we already know the meaning of a compound, we can understand how the parts of the compound add up to its meaning. The problematic nature of compounds can be illustrated by the fact that although a redhead is a person with red hair, a blackhead is not a person with black hair.<sup>1</sup> Humor can, of course, be created around possible contrived meanings of compounds as the following joke illustrates:

Cannibal Chief to Victim: What did you do for a living?

Victim: I was an associate editor.

Chief: Cheer up, after tonight you'll be editor-in-chief.<sup>2</sup>

### A. Definition of "Word"

**T**hat the word is a genuine linguistic unit is scarcely questioned, and everyone seems to know what it is. Teachers have no difficulty in making up spelling lists, which consist of words. Lexicographers produce dictionaries, whose entries are mainly words. When we read, we recognize words by the white spaces between them. Occasionally, however, we are puzzled by printed forms of words that are inconsistent with one another. Here are several examples from one page of a scholarly desk dictionary, *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary*. This book on the same page lists *woodchuck* and *woodcock* as one word and *wood duck* and *wood louse* each as two words. All four words have the same stress pattern, and no formal criteria are evident for differences in the printed form. Such moot cases apart, however, we commonly have no doubt about the identity of words.

<sup>1</sup>This example of contrasting meanings from words that appear similar on the surface is taken from *A Basic Grammar of Modern English*, 2nd ed., by Bruce L. Liles. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1987, p. 91.

<sup>2</sup>*Jokes for Children* by Marguerite Kohl and Frederica Young. New York: Hill & Wang, 1963, p. 37.



One way to identify words is through the way that they are treated in speech. When people are speaking, they often pause—formulating their thoughts, getting the sentence structure in order, and groping for the right word. Such pauses do not occur within words, but between words. This is our cue, and it leads us to another useful definition of *word*, that of Professor Charles F. Hockett: “A word is . . . any segment of a sentence bounded by successive points *at which pausing is possible*.”<sup>3</sup> This pausing can be either silent or vocalized by “u-u-u-h.” The following sentence will illustrate:

In this sentence the positions of possible pauses are marked by *ps*, and every segment between two *ps* is a word. Note that *call up* is considered a word. *Call up* belongs to a special class of two-part verbs—such as *keep on* (continue), *take off* (depart), *butt in* (interrupt), and *show up* (appear)—that speakers of English seem to sense as single words. Hence there would normally be no pause between the two parts.

In this exercise let us apply the foregoing description of pause behavior to ascertain the number of words in the following sentences. In the first blank write the numbered position or positions where a pause would NOT be possible, or likely. In the second blank write the number of words in the sentence.

1. Little Jimmy plays with a big soft ball.

1 2 3 4 5

3. Will you look up the address?

<sup>4</sup>Each *p* marks not only a point where pausing is possible, but also positions where the insertion of other words is possible.



1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8  
4. He has always been a Johnny-on-the-spot.

1 2 3 4 5 6  
5. A dark room is conducive to sleep.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7  
6. He develops films in the darkroom upstairs.

## B. Simple and Complex Words

English words may be classified on the basis of the kinds and combinations of morphemes of which they are composed. We will adopt a classification of three main classes: simple, complex, and compound words.

1. Simple words consist of a single free morpheme.

Examples: slay, flea, long, spirit

2. Complex words contain, as their immediate constituents (ICs), either two bound forms or a bound and a free form.

Examples of two bound forms as ICs:

matri | cide      tele | vise  
ex | clude      cosmo | naut

Examples of bound and free forms as ICs:

dipso | mania      lion | ess  
tele | phone      eras | er

### Exercise 9-2

Make the first IC cut in the words below that permit such cutting. Then classify each word, using S for simple and Cx for complex.

- |                    |                       |                       |
|--------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. knave _____     | 8. purist _____       | 15. enable _____      |
| 2. knavish _____   | 9. oyster _____       | 16. mete _____        |
| 3. graph _____     | 10. misanthrope _____ | 17. meter _____       |
| 4. telegraph _____ | 11. philosophy _____  | 18. hydrometer _____  |
| 5. aquanaut _____  | 12. cannibal _____    | 19. discography _____ |
| 6. bicycle _____   | 13. refusal _____     | 20. shiny _____       |
| 7. pure _____      | 14. dental _____      |                       |

## C. Compound Words

The third class of words is compound words. These have free forms, usually two, as their immediate constituents.

**Examples:**

green   house	out   side	no   show
under   go	over   ripe	attorney   general

A small number of compound words have three or four free forms as coordinate ICs:

**Examples:**

happy   -go   -lucky	spic   and   span
----------------------	-------------------

Compound words resemble grammatical structures in that they imply, though they do not state, a grammatical relationship. Here are a few of the structures implied:

Implied Grammatical Structures	Examples
1. subject + verb	éarthquake (. . . earth quakes) crýbaby (. . . baby cries)
2. verb + object	killjoy (. . . kills joy)
3. verb + adverbial	stópovert (. . . stops over) dównpour (. . . pours down) stáy-at-home (. . . stays at home)
4. subject + <i>be</i> + adjectival	underéstimate (. . . estimates under)
5. subject + <i>be</i> + nominal	high chair (. . . chair is high)
6. subject + <i>be</i> + adverbial	girl friend (. . . friend is a girl)
7. prepositional phrase	íngroup (. . . group is in)
8. adjective modified by prepositional phrase	extrasénsory (beyond the senses)
9. coordination	cárefree (. . . free from care) give-and-take

**Exercise 9-3**

Using the nine numbers given above, indicate the number of the grammatical structure implied by each compound word.

- |                     |                           |
|---------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. workman _____    | 7. praiseworthy _____     |
| 2. afternoon _____  | 8. outgo _____            |
| 3. pickpocket _____ | 9. fly-by-night _____     |
| 4. quicksand _____  | 10. student teacher _____ |
| 5. knockdown _____  | 11. overheat _____        |
| 6. airtight _____   | 12. rough-and-ready _____ |

Compound words can be distinguished from grammatical structures in three ways.

- Compound words cannot be divided by the insertion of intervening material between the two parts, but grammatical structures can be so divided. As illustration, let us compare two sentences:

- She is a sweetheart.
- She has a sweet heart.



In the first the compound word *sweetheart* is indivisible: you cannot insert anything between *sweet* and *heart*. But in the second sentence you could say

She has a sweeter heart than her sister.

She has a sweet, *kind* heart.

She has a sweet, *sweet* heart.

thereby dividing the components *sweet* and *heart*. Thus sentence *b* contains a grammatical structure, not a compound word. Following this principle of divisibility, we find that the next sentence is ambiguous:

She loves sweet potatoes.

When *sweet potatoes* means the yellow kind, the expression cannot be divided and is therefore a compound word. But when the words refer to white potatoes that are sweet, then division is possible, as in

She loves sweet, fresh potatoes.

and we have a grammatical structure.

2. A member of a compound word cannot participate in a grammatical structure. Compare *hård báll* and *báseball*. *Hård báll* is a grammatical structure of modifier plus noun, and its first member, *hard*, can participate in the structure *very hard*:

It was a very hard ball.

But one cannot say

\*It was a very baseball,

as *baseball* is a compound word. Ambiguous cases can occur in sentences like

He is fond of sparkling water.

When *sparkling water* refers to ordinary water that sparkles, the first member, *sparkling*, can participate in a grammatical structure, e.g., *brightly sparkling water*. So *sparkling water* with this meaning is a grammatical structure. But when the expression refers to carbonated water, such participation cannot occur and we have a compound word.

3. Some compound nouns, you may recall, have the stress pattern {''}, as in *blúe-bird*, that distinguishes them from a modifier plus a noun, as in *blúe bird*, which structure carries the stress pattern {''}. For the same reason, a *swimming teacher* is different from a *swîmming téacher*. You should also remember that you cannot depend on the printed form of words to reveal this distinction. For example, the compound noun *high chàir* (a chair for children) and the modifier plus noun *high cháir* (a chair that is high) are both written as two words.

\*Remember that an asterisk *before* a sentence or a phrase means that the sentence or phrase is ungrammatical.

**Exercise 9-4**

Indicate whether each italicized expression is a compound word (Cd) or a grammatical structure (Gs). Pay no attention to spaces, for they can be deceptive.

1. Jim's new car is a *hardtop*. \_\_\_\_\_
2. This jar has a rather *hard top*. \_\_\_\_\_
3. It was a *jack-in-the-box*. \_\_\_\_\_
4. There was a *plant in the box*. \_\_\_\_\_
5. A *hôt døg* is not a *hôt dóg*. \_\_\_\_\_
6. He has a *dog in the manger* attitude. \_\_\_\_\_
7. She has a *strong hold* on him. \_\_\_\_\_
8. She has a *stronghold* in the Women's Club. \_\_\_\_\_
9. George found his *father-in-law*. \_\_\_\_\_
10. George found his *father in trouble*. \_\_\_\_\_
11. They bought it on the *black market*. \_\_\_\_\_
12. The electricity went off, and we were caught in a *black, completely lightless, market*. \_\_\_\_\_
13. Henry is a *designing teacher*. \_\_\_\_\_
14. Henry is a *designing teacher*. \_\_\_\_\_

**Exercise 9-5**

For a review of the three classes of words, identify the following items with these symbols:

S	Simple word	Cd	Compound word
Cx	Complex word	Gs	Grammatical structure

Make the IC cuts for Cx and Cd.

- |                        |                        |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. shârpshòoter _____  | 12. rat-a-tat _____    |
| 2. shârp shóoter _____ | 13. beauty _____       |
| 3. act _____           | 14. beautify _____     |
| 4. react _____         | 15. geometry _____     |
| 5. rattlesnake _____   | 16. búll's èye _____   |
| 6. passbook _____      | (of target) _____      |
| 7. apparatus _____     | 17. búll's èye _____   |
| 8. glowworm _____      | (of bull) _____        |
| 9. import _____        | 18. outlast _____      |
| 10. ripcord _____      | 19. biochemical _____  |
| 11. unearth _____      | 20. inaccessible _____ |

**Some Observations and Applications**

One of the skills you practiced in this chapter was the ability to distinguish between compound words such as a *sweet potato* and grammatical structures such as *sweet*



story. This skill relates to the important usage issue of how to appropriately represent compound nouns in writing. Of course the first step is to recognize whether a construction is a compound word or a grammatical structure. If you determine that a word or set of words constitutes a compound word, then there are further decisions to make about how to represent that compound. *The Chicago Manual of Style*, which provides direction on a variety of matters for editors and writers, outlines the three forms that compound words may take. They may be an "open compound" such as *sweet potato*, a "hyphenated compound" such as *mother-in-law*, or a "closed compound" such as *airtight*. Determining which type of form should be used with a compound is often difficult without checking a dictionary, though *The Chicago Manual of Style* provides some useful guidelines.<sup>5</sup> If you write or edit others' writing, the ability to recognize compounds will help you make informed decisions about how to represent those compounds or will alert you to forms about which you should consult a dictionary or reliable style guide.

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<sup>5</sup>*The Chicago Manual of Style*, 14th ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1993, pp. 202–203.

## Processes of Word Formation

One of the best illustrations of multiple processes of word formation surrounds the word *hamburger*. The word originated from a name, the city of Hamburg, Germany. After establishing itself as the word for a type of sandwich, the word *hamburger* began to be falsely interpreted as a compound, with *burger* acquiring its own status as a morpheme. This reanalysis of *hamburger* as a compound then led to the development of a number of new words such as *baconburger*, *fishburger*, and *cheeseburger*.<sup>1</sup> The word *hamburger* thus illustrates processes that we will discuss in this chapter such as antonomasia, compounding, and folk etymology.

It has been estimated that the English language contains more than a million words, of which fewer than half are included in unabridged dictionaries. It is natural to wonder where all these words came from. The answer is not difficult to find.

First, our language contains a core of words that have been a part of it as far back as we can trace its history, 5,000-plus years. A few examples are these words: *sun, man, foot, father, eat, fire, I, he, with, of*.

Second, English has been a prodigious borrower of words from other languages throughout its history, and a vast number of borrowed words are now in our language. This has come about through invasions, immigration, exploration, trade, and other avenues of contact between English and some foreign language. Below are a few examples of these borrowings. In many cases a word may pass, by borrowing, through one or more languages before it enters English. A case in point is the Arabic plural noun *hashshashin*, hashish eaters, which entered French in the form *assassin*, and from French was borrowed into English.

<sup>1</sup>For a discussion of the development of *hamburger* and other related words, as well as further examples of words that have been developed from names, see *The Play of Words* by Richard Lederer. New York: Pocket Books, 1990, pp. 200–204, 216.



English Word	Source Language	Meaning in Source Language
1. chauffeur	French	stoker of train engine, driver
2. campus	Latin	field, plain
3. guru	Hindi	spiritual leader
4. sheikh	Arabic	old man, chief
5. alligator	Spanish	the lizard
6. window	Old Norse	wind eye
7. agnostic	Greek	unknowable
8. bazaar	Persian	market
9. chow mein	Chinese	fried noodles
10. sake	Japanese	rice wine
11. macho	Spanish	male

A look at the etymologies in your desk dictionary—they are the part of each entry enclosed in brackets—will give you an idea of the amount of borrowing that has taken place in English and of the many languages that have contributed to make the English word-stock rich and full.

Apart from borrowing, English gets new words by means of easily definable processes employed by users of English. It is to these that we will now turn our attention.

### A. Compounding

Compounding is simply the joining of two or more words into a single word, as in *hang glider*, *airstrip*, *cornflakes*, *busybody*, *downpour*, *cutoff*, *skydive*, *alongside*, *breakfast*, *long-haired*, *devil-may-care*, *high school*. As the foregoing examples show, compounds may be written as one word, as a hyphenated word, or as two words. Occasionally it is hard to say whether or not a word is a compound; compare, for instance, *despite* with *in spite of* and *instead of* with *in place of*.

### B. Derivation

Derivation is the forming of new words by combining derivational affixes or bound bases with existing words, as in *disadvise*, *emplane*, *deplane*, *teleplay*, *ecosystem*, *coachdom*, *counselorship*, *re-ask*. Words like these, some of which you have never heard before, are often formed in the heat of speaking or writing. You will note that they are immediately understandable because you know the meaning of the parts.

### C. Invention

Now and then new words are totally invented such as *Kodak*, *nylon*, *dingbat*, *goof*, and *blurb*, but few of these find their way into the common vocabulary.

### D. Echoism

Echoism is the formation of words whose sound suggests their meaning, such as *hiss* and *peewee*. The meaning is usually a sound, either natural such as the *roar* of a waterfall or artificial such as the *clang* of a bell. But the meaning may also be the creature that produces the sound, such as *bobwhite*. Examples: *moan*, *click*, *murmur*, *quack*, *thunder*, *whisper*, *lisp*, *chickadee*, *bobolink*. In literary studies, especially those related to poetry, you will probably see this process referred to as "onomatopoeia."

#### Exercise 10-1

For each of the words below, indicate which process of formation (compounding, derivation, invention, or echoism) is represented. Abbreviate your answers by using just the first letter of the formation process.

- |                       |       |               |       |
|-----------------------|-------|---------------|-------|
| 1. roughneck          | _____ | 6. pop        | _____ |
| 2. codgerhood         | _____ | 7. cream puff | _____ |
| 3. clink (of glasses) | _____ | 8. wheeze     | _____ |
| 4. doodad             | _____ | 9. weirdoism  | _____ |
| 5. dacron             | _____ | 10. exflux    | _____ |

### E. Clipping

Clipping means cutting off the beginning or the end of a word, or both, leaving a part to stand for the whole. The resultant form is called a clipped word. The jargon of the campus is filled with clipped words: *lab*, *dorm*, *prof*, *exam*, *gym*, *prom*, *math*, *psych*, *mike*, and countless others. As these examples suggest, the clipping of the end of a word is the most common, and it is mostly nouns that undergo this process. Clipping results in new free forms in the language.

#### Exercise 10-2

Give the original words from which these clipped words were formed. Consult a dictionary as necessary.

- |                 |       |          |       |
|-----------------|-------|----------|-------|
| 1. ad           | _____ | 9. curio | _____ |
| 2. disco        | _____ | 10. memo | _____ |
| 3. taxi         | _____ | 11. Fred | _____ |
| 4. cab          | _____ | 12. Al   | _____ |
| 5. deli         | _____ | 13. Tom  | _____ |
| 6. vibes        | _____ | 14. Joe  | _____ |
| 7. zoo          | _____ | 15. Phil | _____ |
| 8. fan (sports) | _____ |          |       |



Less common than the back-clipped words, like the foregoing, are those words that lose their forepart, such as *plane* and *phone*.

### Exercise 10-3

Give the original words from which these clipped words were formed. Consult a dictionary as needed.

- |                |       |          |       |
|----------------|-------|----------|-------|
| 1. gator       | _____ | 6. wig   | _____ |
| 2. pike (road) | _____ | 7. cute  | _____ |
| 3. bus         | _____ | 8. Gene  | _____ |
| 4. van         | _____ | 9. Beth  | _____ |
| 5. chute       | _____ | 10. Tony | _____ |

Only a very few words have been formed by both front and back clipping. Four common ones are *flu*, *Liz*, *still* (apparatus for distilling hard liquor), and *fridge*.

Clipped words are formed not only from individual words but also from grammatical units, such as modifier plus noun. *Paratrooper*, for example, is a clipped form of *parachutist trooper*. In cases like this it is often the first part that is shortened while the second part remains intact. Also, two successive words may be clipped to form one new word, as in *sitcom* (= situation comedy).

### Exercise 10-4

Give the originals of these clipped words

- |                         |       |
|-------------------------|-------|
| 1. Amerindian           | _____ |
| 2. maître d' /metər di/ | _____ |
| 3. contrail             | _____ |
| 4. taxicab              | _____ |
| 5. moped                | _____ |
| 6. comsat               | _____ |
| 7. agribusiness         | _____ |

## F. Acronymy

Acronymy is the process whereby a word is formed from the initials or beginning segments of a succession of words. In some cases the initials are pronounced, as in *MP* (military police, or Member of Parliament). In others the initials and/or beginning segments are pronounced as the spelled word would be. For example, *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) is pronounced as /neto/ and *radar* (radio detecting and ranging) as /redar/. In the word *radar* we have an example of an acronym that has evolved to the point that it is written in lowercase letters and its acronymic origin is even unknown by most speakers.

**Exercise 10-5**

Pronounce these acronyms and give their originals.

1. RV \_\_\_\_\_
2. NOW \_\_\_\_\_
3. MADD \_\_\_\_\_
4. OK \_\_\_\_\_
5. scuba \_\_\_\_\_
6. OPEC \_\_\_\_\_
7. WASP \_\_\_\_\_
8. ICBM \_\_\_\_\_
9. laser \_\_\_\_\_
10. FDIC \_\_\_\_\_
11. IRS \_\_\_\_\_

During the latter part of the twentieth century there has been a great increase in the use of acronyms. They tend to abound in large organizations—for instance, in the army, in government, and in big business—where they offer neat ways of expressing long and cumbersome terms. The very names of some businesses have been acronymized, such as *Nabisco*, *Texaco*, and *Alcoa*. Many acronyms are used and understood only by initiates in a given field, like the medical terms *PRN*, *HR*, and *OR*, whereas others gain general currency, such as *CPR*, *IV*, and *AIDS*. It is likely that you employ some campus acronyms that would not be understood elsewhere.

**G. Blending**

Blending is the fusion of two words into one, usually the first part of one word with the last part of another, as in *gasohol*, from *gasoline* and *alcohol*. The resultant blend partakes of both original meanings. Many blends are nonce words, here today and gone tomorrow, and relatively few become part of the standard lexicon. The two classes, blends and clipped words, are not sharply separated, and some words may be put into either class.

**Exercise 10-6**

Give the originals of these blends.

1. brunch \_\_\_\_\_
2. happenstance \_\_\_\_\_
3. stagflation \_\_\_\_\_
4. simulcast \_\_\_\_\_
5. motel \_\_\_\_\_
6. smog \_\_\_\_\_
7. dumbfound \_\_\_\_\_



8. telecast \_\_\_\_\_
9. frustrated \_\_\_\_\_
10. splatter \_\_\_\_\_

**Exercise 10-7**

Give the blends that result from fusing these words.

1. transfer + resistor = \_\_\_\_\_
2. automobile + omnibus = \_\_\_\_\_
3. escalate + elevator = \_\_\_\_\_
4. blare or blow + spurt = \_\_\_\_\_
5. squall + squeak = \_\_\_\_\_

**H. Back-formation**

If someone should ask you, "What does a *feeper* do?" you would probably answer, "He *feeps*, of course." You would answer thus because there exist in your mind such word-pairs as *tell-teller*, *reap-reaper*, *write-writer*, *sing-singer*; and you would reason, perhaps unconsciously, that on the analogy of these forms the word *feeper* must have a parallel verb *feep*. Likewise, in the past, with the introduction of the nouns *peddler*, *beggar*, *swindler*, and *editor* into our language, speakers followed the same analogy and created the previously nonexistent verbs *peddle*, *beg*, *swindle*, and *edit*. This process is just the reverse of our customary method of word formation, whereby we begin with a verb such as *speak* and, by adding the agent morpheme {ER n}, form the noun *speaker*. The process is called back-formation. It may be defined as the formation of a word from one that looks like its derivative. An example is *hedgehop*, from the noun *hedgehopper*. Back-formation is an active source of new words today.

**Exercise 10-8**

1. The noun *greed* is a back-formation from the adjective *greedy*. Write four pairs of words that constitute an analogy for the creation of *greed*.

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

2. The pairs *revise-revision* and *supervise-supervision* are in common use in English. From this analogy what verb is back-formed from *television*? \_\_\_\_\_
3. English has many pairs on the pattern of *create-creation*, *separate-separation*, and *deviate-deviation*. On this analogy what back-formations would you expect from *donation* and *oration*? \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_

**Exercise 10-9**

These verbs are back-formations. Write the words from which they are back-formed.

- |                 |       |                   |       |
|-----------------|-------|-------------------|-------|
| 1. housekeep    | _____ | 9. sidle          | _____ |
| 2. typewrite    | _____ | 10. escalate      | _____ |
| 3. administrate | _____ | 11. reminisce     | _____ |
| 4. resurrect    | _____ | 12. deficit-spend | _____ |
| 5. baby-sit     | _____ | 13. emote         | _____ |
| 6. enthuse      | _____ | 14. burgle        | _____ |
| 7. laze         | _____ | 15. party-poop    | _____ |
| 8. lase         | _____ |                   |       |

**I. Folk Etymology**

The tennis term *let ball* affords a good illustration of our next process, folk etymology. In the term *let ball*, the word *let* has retained the obsolete meaning of “prevented,” common in the language of Shakespeare.<sup>2</sup> A let ball is one that has been prevented from taking its true course by touching the top of the net. It is an entirely different word from the *let* that means “allow.” But a neophyte, hearing the word on the tennis court, may understand it as *net*, because /l/ and /n/ are not far apart in sound and *net* makes sense to him whereas *let* does not. Thus he may use the term *net ball* until corrected by a more knowledgeable player.

Such a process—changing a word, in part or in whole, to make it more understandable and more like familiar words, though based on an inaccurate view of its origin—is known as folk etymology.

**Exercise 10-10**

Look up in your desk dictionary the following examples of folk etymology and write the source of each in the blanks. Usually the reason for the change will be apparent.

- |                  |       |               |       |
|------------------|-------|---------------|-------|
| 1. female        | _____ | 6. coleslaw   | _____ |
| 2. carryall      | _____ | 7. bridegroom | _____ |
| 3. cockroach     | _____ | 8. helpmate   | _____ |
| 4. hangnail      | _____ | 9. woodchuck  | _____ |
| 5. Welsh rarebit | _____ |               |       |

<sup>2</sup>In *Hamlet*, Act I, scene 4, Hamlet says to his two friends who are holding him back from following his father's ghost:

“Unhand me, gentlemen.

By heaven I'll make a ghost of him that lets me.”

Here *lets* means “prevents.” A modern reader, understanding *lets* as “allows,” would get exactly the opposite meaning from that which Shakespeare intended.

The obsolete meaning of *let* survives also in the legal phrase “without let or hindrance.”



Some folk etymologies become established in the speech of particular individuals but are not widespread enough among speakers of a language to necessitate changes within a dictionary. Still, such forms are interesting for what they reveal about how some speakers perceive particular words. Consider, for example, the use of "Verging" instead of "Virgin" in the place name "The Virgin Islands," or those people who speak of "very close veins" instead of "varicose veins."

### J. Antonomasia

Antonomasia means the formation of a common noun, a verb, or an adjective from the name of a person or place. For example, the word *frisbee* comes from the Frisbie Bakery in Bridgewater, Connecticut, whose pie tins were used for a throwing game. The term *vandal* derives from the Vandals, a Germanic people who overran southern Europe fifteen hundred years ago and sacked and looted Rome in the fifth century.

Names from history and literature have given us many common nouns. A lover, for instance, may be called a *romeo*, a *don juan*, or a *casanova*. If he is too *quixotic*, he may meet his *waterloo* at the hands of some *sheba* or *jezebel*.

#### Exercise 10-11

Look up in your desk dictionary the following instances of antonomasia and write the origin of each in the blanks.

- |                     |       |             |       |
|---------------------|-------|-------------|-------|
| 1. sandwich         | _____ | 6. jeans    | _____ |
| 2. frankfurter      | _____ | 7. leotard  | _____ |
| 3. baloney, bologna | _____ | 8. guy      | _____ |
| 4. denim            | _____ | 9. lynch    | _____ |
| 5. cashmere         | _____ | 10. boycott | _____ |

### K. Reduplication

Reduplication is the process of forming a new word by doubling a morpheme, usually with a change of vowel or initial consonant, as in *pooh-pooh*, *tiptop*, and *hanky-panky*. The basic, originating morpheme is most frequently the second half, like *dilly-dally*, but it may be the first half, like *ticktock*, or both halves, like *singsong*, or neither half, like *boogie-woogie*.

Because the word *reduplication* has three meanings relevant to our discussion—the process, the result of the process (that is, the new word), and the element repeated—let us avoid confusion by calling these words "twin-words."

#### Exercise 10-12

Underline the originating morpheme in each of these twin-words.

1. wiggle-waggle
2. pitter-patter
3. nitwit
4. super-duper
5. silly-willy
6. lovey-dovey

Twin-words can be divided into three classes, leaving only a small residue of irregular forms.

1. The base morpheme is repeated without change.

**Examples:** clop-clop, tick-tick

The twin-words in this group are often onomatopoeic—that is, they represent sounds, such as *gobble-gobble* and *chug-chug*. This class of morphemes is commonly used when speaking with small children, and it sometimes involves repetition of an already clipped form such as *dada* (dad) or *baba* (bottle).

2. The base morpheme is repeated with a change of initial consonant.

**Examples:** fuddy-duddy, tootsie-wootsie, razzle-dazzle, roly-poly, teeny-weeny, heebie-jeebies, hootchy-kootchy

3. The base morpheme is repeated with a change of vowel.

**Examples:** chitchat, tiptop, criss-cross

The first vowel is usually the high front lax vowel /ɪ/, and the second is a low vowel /æ/, /a/, or /ɔ/.

**Examples:** zigzag, ticktock, pingpong

#### Exercise 10-13

Identify the class of twin-word by one of these numbers:

1. Repetition without change
2. Repetition with change of initial consonant
3. Repetition with change of vowel

- |                    |                      |
|--------------------|----------------------|
| ___ 1. knick-knack | ___ 6. hotsy-totsy   |
| ___ 2. ding-dong   | ___ 7. hocus-pocus   |
| ___ 3. wishy-washy | ___ 8. flipflop      |
| ___ 4. quack-quack | ___ 9. humdrum       |
| ___ 5. rowdy-dowdy | ___ 10. nitty-gritty |

### Some Observations and Applications

In an earlier chapter we mentioned a business that creates product names by taking into account the meanings that people associate with particular sounds. Here we will note the importance of morphological awareness in the generation of clever and effective product names. With the dramatic increase of inventions, new technologies,



consumer products, and companies, it has become necessary to coin many new terms and names. Those who wish to market new products or services are very involved in creating new words and must use some of the processes of word formation that you have studied in this chapter. Consider, for example, such product or company names as *Papermate* (compounding), *Listerine* (antonomasia and derivation), *Coke* (clipping), *EPT* (acronymy—Early Pregnancy Test), *Nicorette* (blending of nicotine and cigarette), and *Fiddle-Faddle* (reduplication).

Let us consider another type of application of the word formation material that you have studied. A knowledge of back-formations and their development can help you to make more informed word choices in your writing. Back-formations require some time within a language before they achieve respectability in formal writing. Some back-formations that were once stigmatized are now completely acceptable in careful writing. But if you are doing careful writing that you wish others to regard as "correct," then you will certainly want to exercise caution in using words that seem to be relatively recent back-formations. Just being aware of what back-formations are and some of the kinds of forms they take will help you to be more suspicious of a word that you might otherwise want to use. For example, you have seen that a common type of back-formation results when someone assumes that a word ending in *-or*, *-ar*, or *-er* has a corresponding verb without that suffix. Your knowledge of back-formations should make you more cautious about assuming that a particular verb must exist based on a noun form that you are familiar with. If the verb you are thinking of using sounds a little strange to you (such as perhaps the word *burgle*), even if you have heard others use it, that might be a good indication that you are dealing with a relatively new back-formation. You can check on your suspicion by consulting a dictionary, particularly a usage dictionary.

## Inflectional Paradigms

If the plural of *tooth* is *teeth*, shouldn't the plural of *booth* be *beeth*? One goose, two geese—so one moose, two meese? One index, two indices—one Kleenex, two Kleenices? If people ring a bell today and rang a bell yesterday, why don't we say that they flang a ball? If they wrote a letter, perhaps they also bote their tongue. If the teacher taught, why isn't it also true that the preacher praught? Why is it that the sun shone yesterday while I shined my shoes, that I treaded water and then trod on soil, and that I flew out to see a World Series game in which my favorite player flied out?<sup>1</sup>

**A** paradigm is a set of related forms having the same stem but different affixes. As a reminder, here is a derivational paradigm with the stem *head*: *ahead*, *behead*, *header*, *headlong*, *headship*, *heady*, *subhead*.

Paradigms are also formed by the words to which the inflectional affixes are attached. These are called inflectional paradigms. There are three of them, which are listed below.

### NOUN PARADIGM

Forms:	Stem	Plural	Possessive	Plural+Possessive
<b>Inflectional suffixes:</b>		{s- pl}	{-s ps}	{-s pl ps}
<b>Models:</b>	doctor woman	doctors women	doctor's woman's	doctors' women's

<sup>1</sup>Excerpt from "English Is a Crazy Language" in *Crazy English* by Richard Lederer. New York: Pocket Books, 1989, p. 13.



## VERB PARADIGM

Forms:	Stem	Present Third-Person Singular	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
<b>Inflectional suffixes:</b>		{s 3d}	{-ING vb}	{-D pt}	{-D pp}
<b>Models:</b>	show	shows	showing	showed	showed (also shown)
	ring	rings	ringing	rang	rung
	cut	cuts	cutting	cut	cut

## COMPARABLE PARADIGM

Forms:	Stem	Comparative	Superlative
<b>Inflectional suffixes:</b>		{-ER cp}	{-EST sp}
<b>Models</b>	sweet	sweeter	sweetest
	lively	livelier	liveliest
	friendly	friendlier	friendliest
	soon	sooner	soonest
	near	nearer	nearest

In addition, there is a pronoun paradigm which differs from the previous three in that it is not a stem-and-affix group but a small and closed set of words of fixed form. Such a closed set of words is called a structure class. We will take up the personal pronouns in chapter 13, together with the other structure classes.

In the paradigms above, the meaning of the stem remains constant; the suffixes produce the differences in meaning among the forms of each paradigm. Membership in one of these inflectional paradigms is one of the signals that enable us to group words into four of the major parts of speech—nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. We will take up this matter in chapter 12. Now we will examine the inflectional paradigms one by one.

## A. The Noun Paradigm

The noun paradigm is as follows:

Forms:	Stem	Plural	Possessive	Plural + Possessive
<b>Inflectional suffixes:</b>		{s- pl}	{-s ps}	{-s pl ps}
<b>Models:</b>	doctor	doctors	doctor's	doctors'
	man	men	man's	men's

This four-form paradigm is maximal, and not all nouns have all the four forms. Many nouns do not take the possessive forms because an *of* structure often takes the

place of the {-s ps} morpheme. For example, one is more likely to say “the ceiling of the room” than “the room’s ceiling.” In the spoken language we cannot always be sure which s morpheme we are hearing, because the possessive and the plural have identical forms—/s/, /z/, and /əz/—except in the case of irregular plurals. If, for instance, you were to hear /ðə daktərz səmɪnər/, it could mean, “the doctor’s seminar,” “the doctors’ seminar,” or “the doctors seminar.”

A few groups of so-called nouns have only one form of this paradigm. The words in one group—such as *tennis*, *courage*, and *haste*—have the form of the stem. Another group does not have a singular form but only that of the -s plural: *clothes*, *environs*, *trousers*, and others. These take *they/them* as a pronoun substitute and go with the plural form of the verb, e.g., “My clothes [they] are clean.” Still another group ends in an -s, words such as *economics*, *linguistics*, *mathematics*, *physics*, but these take *it* as a pronoun substitute and go with a singular form of the verb, e.g., “*Linguistics* [it] is an exacting discipline.” Words in a certain ill-defined group end in -s, such as *ethics*, *oats*, *pliers*, *suds*, *measles*, but may be either singular or plural, depending on the context in which they occur or on the meaning expressed.

#### Examples:

- Singular: *Measles* (= a malady) is a contagious disease.  
 Plural: Have you ever had them, the *measles*? (= a malady)  
 Singular: *Ethics* (= a philosophic discipline) is a challenging subject.  
 Plural: His *ethics* are beyond reproach (-beliefs and actions).

#### Exercise 11-1

Write the paradigmatic forms of these nouns. For some slots you may have two forms or none.

	Stem	Plural	Possessive	Plural + Possessive
1.	carpenter			
2.	woman			
3.	brother			
4.	cloud			
5.	cattle			
6.	duck			
7.	Japanese			
8.	means			
9.	athletics			
10.	scissors			

### Noun Plurals

At this point it is convenient to set forth the ways of distinguishing singular from plural nouns. For many nouns the long-used meaning test will do: a noun is singular



if it means one and plural if it means more than one. But meaning does not always work as a test of number. Take for instance this sentence: "I like your *hair*." Is *hair* singular or plural, assuming it means not a single strand but the coiffure or thatch on someone's head? Nor will form always do because some nouns ending in an -s seem to be singular, e.g., *physics*, and others without an -s plural seem to be plural, e.g., *several salmon*.

There remain three useful tests for number in the noun.

1. A noun is singular if it can take one of these substitutes: *he/him*, *she/her*, *it*, *this*, or *that*. It is plural if it can take as a substitute *they/them*, *these*, or *those*.

**Examples:** The beach was covered with *white sand*. (= it)

Have you studied *phonetics*? (= it)

Where did you hang *my trousers*? (= them)

2. The number of a noun may be signaled by a modifier such as *several*, *many*, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *fifteen*, or by a pronoun reference such as *his/her/its*, *their*.

**Examples:** We saw *many fish* swimming under the bridge.

In returning to the fold, the *sheep* changed *its* direction.

In returning to the fold the *sheep* changed *their* direction.

Be careful not to apply your test using a modifier such as *some*, which can be used with a singular or plural noun.

**Examples:** He bought *some cake*.

He bought *some cakes*.

3. When a noun functions as subject of a verb, its number is sometimes shown by the form of the verb. It is the singular noun that goes with the {-s 3d} form of the verb, as in

Measles *is* a contagious disease.

The fish *swims* in the pond.

Contrast these with

The goods *are* on the way.

The fish *swim* in the pond.

in which the verb form *are* or *swim* shows that *goods* and *fish* are plural.

If the verb has a form that does not change for singular and plural (e.g., a past tense form other than *was* or *were*) one can usually substitute a present tense form, or the present or past tense of *be*, e.g.,

The goods came (substitute present tense, *come*) late.

The goods came (substitute present tense of *be*, *are*) late.

The goods came (substitute past tense of *be*, namely, *were*) late.

Each of these substitutions shows that *goods* is plural.

**Exercise 11-2**

In the blanks of the first column provide *it*, *they*, or *them* as the appropriate pronoun substitute for the italicized word. In the blanks of the second column write Sg (singular) or Pl (plural) to show the number of the italicized noun.

- |  |       |       |
|--|-------|-------|
| 1. Miss Shen is wearing panty <i>hose</i> today.       | _____ | _____ |
| 2. What did they do with the <i>molasses</i> ?         | _____ | _____ |
| 3. The <i>summons</i> came in the mail.                | _____ | _____ |
| 4. Why doesn't she call the <i>police</i> ?            | _____ | _____ |
| 5. Jack likes to fish for <i>pike</i> .                | _____ | _____ |
| 6. The firm transported the <i>goods</i> to Australia. | _____ | _____ |
| 7. The jar is filled with <i>sugar</i> .               | _____ | _____ |
| 8. Have you ever had the <i>mumps</i> ?                | _____ | _____ |
| 9. She became fond of <i>mathematics</i> .             | _____ | _____ |
| 10. Does your brother eat <i>soap</i> ?                | _____ | _____ |
| 11. The <i>poor</i> among us needed assistance.        | _____ | _____ |

**Exercise 11-3**

Circle the noun modifier or pronoun reference that reveals the number of the italicized noun.

1. The hunting party saw few *deer* this season.
2. That *news* delighted her.
3. He studied *poetics* in all its complications.
4. My *scissors* lost their sharpness.
5. She shot both *quail* on the wing.

**Exercise 11-4**

Circle the verb that reveals the number of the italicized noun.

1. The *Chinese* was preparing the dinner.
2. The *Chinese* were preparing the dinner.
3. *Oats* is his best crop.
4. The *bass* are biting today.
5. The *species* has become extinct.

Some nouns, known as collective nouns, may be either singular or plural in meaning when they are singular in form. These are nouns that represent a collection or unit of individuals, such as *tribe*, *family*, *team*, *committee*, *faculty*, *choir*. Speakers are likely to use singular forms (verbs, pronouns, determiners) in connection with such nouns when thinking of the unit as a single whole, but they will use plural forms when intending the separate individuals within the unit.

**Examples:** Singular: The family (= it, the unit) *is* sitting at the dinner table.  
 Plural: The family (= they, the individuals) *have* gathered from many parts of the country.



**Exercise 11-5**

Indicate in the blanks by Sg or Pl whether the italicized collective nouns are singular or plural. Decide by using the tests for number that you have learned.

1. The *band* is playing well today. \_\_\_\_\_
2. The *band* are playing well today. \_\_\_\_\_
3. The *choir* became dissatisfied with their robes. \_\_\_\_\_
4. The *choir* became dissatisfied with its singing. \_\_\_\_\_
5. The *staff* of the college paper was a high-quality group. \_\_\_\_\_
6. The *staff* of the college paper were assembled to discuss their last edition. \_\_\_\_\_
7. The *tribe* were on the warpath. \_\_\_\_\_
8. The *tribe* was the owner of the river bottom. \_\_\_\_\_
9. The *congregation* rose to its feet. \_\_\_\_\_
10. The *congregation* have all helped with the fund-raising drive. \_\_\_\_\_

The plural form of the noun signals the meaning of more than one. The most frequently employed plural forms are the three allomorphs of {-s pl}, such as we hear in *hats* /-s/, *fads* /-z/, and *kisses* /-əz/. These -s plurals are customarily considered the regular forms, not only because of their numerical preponderance but also because new nouns, either from other languages (*pizzeria*) or composed from existing morphemes (*astronaut*), tend to follow the -s plural.

In addition to the regular -s plural there are several small groups of irregular plurals.

1. Three nouns still retain an -en plural—*oxen*, *children*, and *brethren*—the last two having in addition a replacive stem vowel and a suffixal -r.
2. Another group has a Ø (zero) suffixal plural. This is a convenient way of saying that the plural is the same as the singular. It is shown in this way:

*deer* /dir/ (pl.) = /dir/ + /Ø/

The Ø plural allomorph refers to a significant absence of suffix. The words in this group are the names of edible animals, game animals, fish, and birds. Among them are *deer*, *sheep*, *swine*, *antelope*, *bass*, *pike*, *carp*, *perch*, *pickerel*, *quail*, *grouse*. Beside these we may set similar words with a regular plural: *pigs*, *goats*, *suckers*, *muskie*s, *bullheads*, *pheasants*, *ducks*. Some have both forms; a farmer, for example, who has *ducks* on his pond may go out hunting *duck*.

3. Seven common nouns form their plural by a replacive allomorph; for instance,

/gis/ = /gus/ + /u > i/

These are *man*, *woman*, *goose*, *tooth*, *foot*, *louse*, and *mouse*. In *women* there are two replacives:

/wimɪn/ = /wʊmən/ + /ʊ > i/ + /ə > i/

4. One set of nouns has as the stem of the plural an allomorph that is different from the stem of the singular. The morpheme {calf}, for example, has /kæf/ as the singular allomorph but /kæv-/ as the plural allomorph, and the plural suffix /-z/ conforms to the voiced sound /v/. Changes in the phonemic form of allomorphs as they are grouped into words, or as they appear in different forms of a word, are called morphophonemic changes. Among the morphophonemic changes we have already noted for the plural are these:

calf > calves /kæf/ > /kæv-/  
 child > children /tʃaɪld/ > /tʃɪld-/

Each of these changes in an allomorph is an example of a morphophonemic change. Nouns in this group end in /-f/ or /-θ/.<sup>2</sup> Here are two examples:

knife > knives /naɪvz/ = /naɪf/ + /f > v/ + /-z/  
 mouth > mouths /maʊðz/ = /maʊθ/ + /θ > ð/ + /-z/

Other examples include *half*, *loaf*, *self*, *wife*, *bath*, *path*, *oath*. Some nouns ending in /-f/ or /-θ/ do not make a morphophonemic change, such as *chiefs*; others may have two forms of the plural, such as /yuθs/ or /yuðz/.

#### Exercise 11-6

Write in phonemic script the allomorphic formula for the formation of the plural of these words.

**Example:** brother brethren

/brədərən/ = /brədər/ + /ə > ɛ/ + /ər > rən/

1. child \_\_\_\_\_
2. moose \_\_\_\_\_
3. foot \_\_\_\_\_
4. leaf \_\_\_\_\_
5. wolf \_\_\_\_\_
6. path \_\_\_\_\_

#### Exercise 11-7

Divide these words into two groups: (1) those that undergo no change of the base allomorph in the plural, e.g., "those two coughs"; (2) those that have two forms of the plural, e.g., *hoofs*, *hooves*. The words are *grief*, *scarf*, *chief*, *truth*, *wharf*, *sheath*, *belief*, *wreath*, *waif*, *staff*. Respond according to pronunciation. The spelling does not vary in all cases.

One Allomorph

Two Allomorphs

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

<sup>2</sup>Some speakers may add the consonant /-s/ to their list, because they change the final stem in *house* from /-s/ to /-z/ when adding the plural suffix. The resulting form of the word in this case is /hawzəz/.



Every language has its own ways of signaling plurality in nouns. In the Germanic tongues the suffixal consonants /-s/, /-n/, and /-r/ are common for this purpose. In Italian, on the other hand, the suffixal vowels /-i/ and /-e/ are employed. Chinese, an exception, does not signal plurality at all, except in the personal pronouns.

When foreign words are borrowed into English, their pronunciation becomes assimilated more or less to the phonemic system of English. This means that we follow our own native pronunciation habits as we utter these foreign words. Take, for example, the Italian noun *soprano* /soprano/. This is pronounced /səpræno/ by most Americans. We replace the first Italian /o/ by /ə/ because this accords with our way of pronouncing countless three-syllable words that have a primary stress on the medial syllable: /pəteto/, /bætənik/, /kənɛkʃən/, /məɪnɪnənt/. And the Italian /a/ becomes /æ/ because it is our habit to pronounce *an* as /æn/ in many words, such as *abandon*, *mechanic*, *outlandish*, *pedantic*, *titanic*.

Now, what happens to the pluralizing morpheme of foreign nouns that are imported into English? Frequently this pluralizer is completely abandoned, and the adopted noun is made to conform to the allomorphic pattern of the English plural {-s pl}. An instance is the Italian *soprano*, which has lost its native plural of /soprani/ and is pluralized like any English word ending in a vowel /səprænoz/. And this has been the fate of many such Italian imports in -o: *piano*, *cello*, *solo*, *rondo*, *casino*, *studio*, *canto*. Spanish plurals—/-s/ after a vowel and /-es/ after a consonant—are so similar to the English that they seem to assimilate to the English plural pattern without exception. Witness such borrowings from Spanish as *patio*, *mosquito*, *barbecue*, *cafeteria*, *guitar*, *cigar*, *lariat*, *canyon*, *alligator*, *tornado*.

On other occasions the foreign spelling is retained but the pronunciation, with occasional exceptions, is modified. Thus the Latin singular and plural forms, *datum*-*data*, keep in English the original spelling, but the Latin plural /-a/ becomes /-ə/, whereas the Greek-Latin plural *phenomena*, with its classical /-a/ plural, may remain unchanged in English, though some speakers change it to /-ə/.

Many borrowed nouns have both plurals—their foreign ones, often modified, and the English plural, such as *concerti* and *concertos*, *curricula* and *curriculum*s, *syllabi* and *syllabuses*. The tendency is for such words to adopt the English {-s pl}, but some have proved resistant to change, such as *alumni*.

### Exercise 11-8

Look up the plurals of these words in your desk dictionary. Then write in phonemic script the pluralizing allomorph of each. If there are two pluralizers, write both.

**Examples:** criterion 1. /-z/ or /-ən > -ə/  
thesis /-ɪs/ > /-ɪz/

1. alumna
2. formula
3. opus
4. appendix
5. stratum
6. hypothesis

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

7. kibbutz \_\_\_\_\_
8. apparatus \_\_\_\_\_
9. medium \_\_\_\_\_
10. stimulus \_\_\_\_\_
11. memorandum \_\_\_\_\_
12. graffito \_\_\_\_\_
13. nucleus \_\_\_\_\_
14. analysis \_\_\_\_\_
15. fedayee \_\_\_\_\_

### Noun Possessive

The noun possessive morpheme {-s ps} has the same phonologically conditioned allomorphs as the plural: /-s/, /-z/, and /-əz/, plus a zero allomorph as in *students*'. The term *possessive* is not a satisfactory label for this morpheme because a variety of different semantic relationships can exist between the possessive noun and the one that follows. The following cases will illustrate.

Relationship	Example
1. Possession or belongingness	John's hat Judy's home
2. Characterization or description	a cowboy's walk men's coats
3. Origin	Raphael's paintings Cary's novels
4. Measure (time, value, space)	an hour's wait a dollar's worth a stone's throw
5. Subject of act	John's flight (John flew) the judge's decision (the judge decided)
6. Object of act	Eliot's critics were many. (They criticized Eliot.)

#### Exercise 11-9

Using the numbers above, indicate the relation shown between the italicized possessive and its following noun.

1. We missed the other car by a *hair's breadth*. \_\_\_\_\_
2. A *wren's song* floated through the window. \_\_\_\_\_
3. They were playing *children's games*. \_\_\_\_\_
4. The police provided for *Richard's protection*. \_\_\_\_\_
5. The *boy's jump* saved his life. \_\_\_\_\_
6. The *moon's beams* were brilliant that night. \_\_\_\_\_



7. Willard's arrival was a surprise. \_\_\_\_\_
8. He has never done a day's work. \_\_\_\_\_
9. She met Manuel's father. \_\_\_\_\_
10. He was happy about Jane's winning. \_\_\_\_\_

A noun possessive is ambiguous when it expresses more than one of the above relationships at the same time. For example, "His son's loss grieved him" has two possible meanings: (1) He lost his son (object of underlying verb), and this grieved him; or (2) His son (subject of underlying verb) lost something, perhaps a family heirloom, and this grieved him.

#### Exercise 11-10

As in the previous exercise, use the numbers 1 to 6 to indicate the relationships expressed by each ambiguous possessive.

1. Dr. McCoy's examination was a long one. \_\_\_\_\_
2. That is my father's photograph. \_\_\_\_\_
3. He was carrying a woman's coat on his arm. \_\_\_\_\_
4. We bought one of Rutherford's paintings. \_\_\_\_\_
5. The case was about his wife's fatal shooting. \_\_\_\_\_

In making a choice between the inflected possessive (*student's*) and the periphrastic *of* structure (*of the student*), there is no hard-and-fast guideline, and often the form chosen depends on personal taste. The tendency, however, is to use the inflected form with animate nouns and the *of* structure with inanimate nouns; thus, *the dog's leg*, but *the leg of the table*.

#### Exercise 11-11

This is an exercise to investigate the usage of the class in regard to the inflected possessive {-s ps} and the *of* structure. You will be given pairs of sentences like this:

- a. The *garage's* cement floor is cracking.
- b. The cement floor *of the garage* is cracking.

If you would use only one of these forms, put a check mark only after the sentence containing that one. If you would use either one of the two, put a check mark in both blanks. If you would give preference to one of the two, circle the check mark that corresponds to your preferred choice. For this exercise, there are no right or wrong answers.

- 1a. The *building's* roof was blown off by the wind. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. The roof *of the building* was blown off by the wind. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2a. The *soldier's* rifle had been thoroughly cleaned. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. The rifle *of the soldier* had been thoroughly cleaned. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3a. The *lawn's* color had become brown. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. The color *of the lawn* had become brown. \_\_\_\_\_

- 4a. We admired the *dog's* silky coat. \_\_\_\_\_  
 b. We admired the silky coat *of the dog*. \_\_\_\_\_  
 5a. The *hat's* brim was torn. \_\_\_\_\_  
 b. The brim *of the hat* was torn. \_\_\_\_\_

A quick tabulation on the board will show the extent to which the members of the class make a distinction between animate nouns (*soldier* and *dog*) and inanimate nouns (*building*, *lawn*, and *hat*) in their use of {-s ps} and the *of* structure.

The following exercise concludes our look at the forms of the noun paradigm. We will return to them again in our study of syntax. There our knowledge of the noun paradigm will help us to single out nouns in this simple way: If a word has two or more forms of the paradigm, we will label it a noun, e.g.,

daughter      daughter's      daughters      daughters'

But if it has only one form, such as *bravery*, it is not a noun by this paradigmatic test, although it may be shown to be a noun by other tests.

#### Exercise 11-12

Write N after every word that is a noun *according to the paradigmatic test* described above.

- |                   |                    |                         |
|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. player _____   | 6. nation _____    | 11. chess _____         |
| 2. pray _____     | 7. uncle _____     | 12. field _____         |
| 3. sidewalk _____ | 8. discovery _____ | 13. pocket _____        |
| 4. chaos _____    | 9. together _____  | 14. game _____          |
|                   |                    | (in playground context) |
| 5. relax _____    | 10. bus _____      | 15. game _____          |
|                   |                    | (in hunting context)    |

## B. The Verb Paradigm

The next set of forms we will examine is the verb paradigm. Verbs have three, four, or five forms. Those with four, such as *learn* below, are the most common. The verb paradigm goes as follows:

Forms:	Stem	Present Third-Person Singular	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
<b>Inflectional suffixes:</b>		{-s 3d}	{-ING vb}	{-D pt}	{-D pp}
<b>Models:</b>	learn	learns	learning	learned	learned
	choose	chooses	choosing	chose	chosen
	set	sets	setting	set	set



Each of these five forms has its own uses, which we will now run through.

1. The first form is the stem. This occurs after *to*, after auxiliaries such as *can* and *will*, and in the present tense, except for the third-person singular.

**Examples:** *to sit, can go, we eat*

2. The present third-person singular is the form used with the pronouns *he, she, it*, and with singular words or with word groups for which these pronouns will substitute.

**Examples:** That *freshman* cuts his class every Wednesday.  
*He* cuts his class every Wednesday.  
*Each* is expected to do his duty.  
*Somebody* has left a note for you.  
*Winning the championship* cuts no ice with me.

The morpheme {-s 3d} has the same allomorphs in the same distribution as the plural and possessive forms of the noun: /-s/, /-z/, and /-əz/, as in *cuts, begs, and buzzes*.

3. The present participle is the {-ING vb} form. Although it is called the "present participle," it isn't actually a present-tense form, so the name is a little misleading. But we will continue to use the term because it is the term most commonly used for this form. The present participle combines with seven of the eight forms of *be*—*am, is, are, was, were, be, been*—to make verb phrases.

**Examples:** They *were writing* letters.  
 She must have *been sleeping*.

It is also used as a subjectless verbal, that is, when it is not the main verb and does not have a subject, as in

His passion used to be *playing* golf.

A few verbs—mostly referring to mental activities—are seldom heard in the {-ING vb} form as main verbs in the sentence. These verbs include *own, need, prefer, know, hear, like, remember, and understand*. The following sentences, for instance, are ungrammatical:

- \*Jake is *owning* a cabin in the north woods.
- \*She was not *knowing* what to say.

But they are in common use as subjectless verbals, as in

*Owning* a cabin in the north woods, Jake was very popular during the summer vacation period.

Not *knowing* what to say, Marilyn maintained a discreet silence.

This present-participle verbal {-ING vb} morpheme should not be confused with the nominal {-ING nm} morpheme or the adjectival {-ING aj} morpheme.

4. The past tense takes on numerous forms, e.g., *jumped*, *shrunk*, *kept*, *led*, *began*, *rode*, *built*, *found*, *knew*, *swore*, *shook*. The most usual ones end in the allomorphs /-t/, /-d/, and /-əd/, as in *passed*, *pleased*, and *parted*.
5. The term *past participle*, like the term *present participle*, is also a little misleading because it is not used to convey a past-tense notion. But once again, we will follow convention and continue to use this term. The past participle also has numerous forms. Those most frequently occurring end in the same three sounds mentioned above in connection with the past tense, but here they are allomorphs of {-D pp}. The past participle is used with *have*, *has*, *had*, *having* to form verbal phrases.

**Examples:** She *has selected* a stunning gown.  
He *had never flown* in a helicopter.

It is also used with the forms of *be* to form the passive.

**Examples:** The orchestra *was selected* by the committee.  
By night the missing lad *had been found*.

This past-participle verbal {-D pp} morpheme should not be confused with the adjectival {-D aj} morpheme, described earlier.

### Exercise 11-13

Fill out the following verb paradigms. Then indicate by a 3, 4, or 5 whether the verbs are three-form, four-form, or five-form.

	Stem	Pres. 3d Sg.	Pres. P.	Past T.	Past P.	Number
1.	walk	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.	bite	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.	keep	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.	freeze	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.	set	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6.	sell	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7.	put	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8.	rise	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9.	tease	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10.	sleep	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Most verbs follow faithfully the first three forms—the stem, the present third-person singular, and the present participle—with occasional exceptions like *does* and *says*, which have replacive allomorphs in the stem:

/dəz/ = /du/ + /u > ə/ + /-z/

/sez/ = /se/ + /e > ɛ/ + /-z/

And in the past tense and past participle most verbs have identical forms, as in *learned*, *have learned*; *batted*, *have batted*; *cried*, *have cried*. Such are commonly



known as regular verbs. It is because of the influence of this large number of verbs having this same pattern in the past tense and past participle that children utter such forms as *knowed*, *runned*, *drinked*. The child is simply following the pattern he knows best and in so doing he creates what we call an analogical form.<sup>3</sup> The process of analogy has operated historically in the language and has derived forms that are now used, even in the standard dialect. For example, the past tense of the verb *help* used to be formed very differently but has now been regularized and takes the past-tense suffix *-ed*.

There still remain, however, numerous verbs, many of them of high frequency, that form their past tense and past participle in various ways. If we should classify all English verbs according to the phonemic changes and patterns of change in the past tense and past participle, the total would amount to about fifty classes. This is hardly worth our time; an exercise in such classification will show you four of these classes as samples of the patterns of change in the past tense and past participle.

#### Exercise 11-14

Write in phonemic symbols the past tense and past participle of each verb. Then classify the verbs into four classes according to the phonemic forms they have in common.

		Past Tense	Past Participle
Examples:	1. blow	<i>blu</i>	<i>blon</i>
	2. freeze	<i>froz</i>	<i>frozən</i>
	3. grow	<i>gru</i>	<i>gron</i>
	4. speak	<i>spok</i>	<i>spokən</i>
Class 1:	<i>blow</i> and <i>grow</i> .	{-D pt} = /o > u/ {-D pp} = /-n/	
Class 2:	<i>freeze</i> and <i>speak</i> .	{-D pt} = /i > o/ {-D pp} = /i > o/ + /ən/	
1. sting	_____	_____	_____
2. creep	_____	_____	_____
3. drive	_____	_____	_____

<sup>3</sup>In language, analogy is the process by which a new form or pattern is created on the basis of existing forms or patterns. For example, the pattern *ring*, *rang* and *sing*, *sang* is the basis for *bring*, *brang*. And other nonstandard forms in the past tense are created analogically from other patterns. Pairs such as *fling*, *flung* and *sting*, *stung* are responsible for *bring*, *brung*, whereas the widespread use of the allomorph /-d/ following a voiced sound to signal past tense, as in *wing*, *winged*, *long*, *longed*, *seem*, *seemed*, *mow*, *mowed*, *rob*, *robbed*, results in *bring*, *bringed*, heard in children's speech. The suffixal morpheme /-ize/ added to adjectives to form such verbs as *legalize* and *rationalize* has brought about the analogical *finalize*. With nouns the child or foreign speaker who knows *years*, *fears*, and *peers* is likely to use the analogical plural *deers*. Both standard and nonstandard forms are brought into being by analogy.

New grammatical patterns as well as new forms are also created by analogy. The foreign learner of English who has heard "I want to tell you something" is likely to say "I want to explain you something." Among native speakers the high frequency of object pronouns like *me* after the verb, as in "The man saw me," "The man found me," and "The man met me," has produced the analogical pattern "The right man for the job is me" and "It is me."

Analogy is an important and widely operative process in language change.

4. sing \_\_\_\_\_
5. ride \_\_\_\_\_
6. write \_\_\_\_\_
7. cling \_\_\_\_\_
8. ring \_\_\_\_\_
9. keep \_\_\_\_\_
10. deal \_\_\_\_\_
11. swim \_\_\_\_\_
12. spin \_\_\_\_\_
13. win \_\_\_\_\_

Class 1: \_\_\_\_\_

Class 2: \_\_\_\_\_

Class 3: \_\_\_\_\_

Class 4: \_\_\_\_\_

### Suppletion

As part of our discussion of verb forms, it would be useful to consider another process that has affected some of the forms within the paradigm of particular verbs. We previously noted the role of analogy. One other process is suppletion, which we will introduce through an example. Let's look at the five-part verb *go*.

go goes going went gone

In this paradigm one form, *went*, seems out of place. It ought to be *\*goed*, or at least a word that begins with /g/. But the entire stem /go-/ has been replaced by a wholly different stem /wɛn-/. Such a total change within a paradigm is called suppletion, and the new form is a suppletive form. The suppletion here can be simply expressed by this diagram:

/wɛnt/ = /go > wɛn/ + /t/

One English verb, *be*, is unique in that it has eight paradigmatic forms:

be am/is/are being was/were been

The stem is obviously *be*, and the alien forms that have intruded themselves into the paradigm—*am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*—are suppletive forms.

Despite some of the differences we have noted among verbs with regard to their paradigmatic forms, knowledge of the verb paradigm is helpful in determining whether or not a given word should be classified as a verb. If a word can fit into three or more slots of the paradigm, we comfortably classify it as a verb. The word *begin* fits into all five positions

begin begins beginning began begun



and therefore is given the classification of verb.

With *cut*, however, the case is different. It does have three of the five possible forms:

cut    cuts    cutting    cut    cut

But it also fits partially into the noun paradigm

cut (singular)    cuts (plural)

So we are faced with two homophonous *cut*'s, one a verb and the other a noun, and we cannot classify the isolated word. When it occurs in context, however, the matter is simple: "She is *cutting* the bread." *Cutting* is one verb form, and we can make substitutions showing the other verb forms:

She *cuts* the bread.

She *cut* the bread yesterday.

Obviously *cut* in this context is a verb. Likewise, in "He has a cut on his finger," we can substitute a plural form

He has several *cuts* on his finger.

showing that *cut* here is a noun.

### Exercise 11-15

Take a quick look again at the noun and verb paradigms. Then, using membership in a paradigm as a criterion, classify these words as N (noun), V (verb), or NV (both noun and verb).

- |               |       |             |       |
|---------------|-------|-------------|-------|
| 1. driver     | _____ | 11. bird    | _____ |
| 2. compliment | _____ | 12. join    | _____ |
| 3. appear     | _____ | 13. end     | _____ |
| 4. world      | _____ | 14. morning | _____ |
| 5. agency     | _____ | 15. variety | _____ |
| 6. agonize    | _____ | 16. mother  | _____ |
| 7. truck      | _____ | 17. grammar | _____ |
| 8. decide     | _____ | 18. melt    | _____ |
| 9. emotion    | _____ | 19. note    | _____ |
| 10. book      | _____ | 20. carve   | _____ |

### Aspect in the Verb Phrase

As you consider verb phrases and their various forms, you should realize that they convey not only time but also aspect. Aspect is the expression of meanings concerned with the continuity or distribution of events in time. Here are a few such MEANINGS, expressed in various ways in English:

1. **Beginning of event**  
He began to sweat.
2. **End of event**  
He stopped sweating.
3. **Frequency of event**  
She sang often.
4. **Repetition of event**  
Jim pounded on the door.
5. **Habitual performance of event** (called habitual aspect)  
They used to eat dinner early.
6. **Single occurrence of event in time** (called indefinite aspect)  
I ate my lunch.  
He stepped down.
7. **Progression or duration of event in time** (called progressive or durative aspect)  
I was eating my lunch.
8. **Completion of event** (called perfective aspect)  
I have eaten my lunch.

In many languages such meanings are clearly signaled by the form of the verb itself rather than through a combination of verbs. In Russian, for example, if one adds to the verb /pisal/ (= wrote) the prefix /na/, the meaning becomes "has finished writing," the perfective aspect, number 8 above. In standard French, which has three past tenses, one can choose a form that signals both past time and either of two aspects simultaneously. An example is

Il travaillait.

Here the suffix *-ait* enables the verb to be translated in either of two ways:

He *was working*. (progressive aspect, number 7 above)

He *used to work*. (habitual aspect, number 5 above)

In English, aspectual meanings are expressed in many different ways. For instance, aspectual meaning may be implicit in the meaning of the verb itself. We can illustrate this by contrasting two verbs that both mean "hit" but differ in their aspectual meaning. Consider *strike* (single event in time, indefinite aspect, number 6) and *beat* (progressive aspect, number 7; or repetitive aspect, number 4). Aspectual meaning may also be determined by the context in which the verb is embedded. Often the aspectual meaning of a verb phrase is signaled by adverbials that answer the question of "when?" or "how long?" Examples:

He *wrote* a letter this morning. (single event, indefinite aspect, number 6)

She *wrote* in her diary every morning. (habitual aspect, number 5)

He *wrote* all morning to finish his report. (progressive aspect, number 7)

Although English expresses aspectual meanings in many various ways, English may be said to have only two aspects that are structurally signaled by a distinctive verb combination: progressive and perfective.



1. **Progressive or durative aspect**, as in  
She *was writing* a letter.

The form of the progressive is *be* + verb + *ing*. The *be* may occur in any of its forms, for example:

They *may be* sleeping.

She *is* driving the car.

She *had been* practicing law.

In the progressive aspect the event is thought of as progressing, going on, without any indication of an end. This aspect may show something going on over a period in which other events happen, as in

She *was writing* a letter when I entered.

The progressive aspect is generally employed with verbs whose meaning is capable of noticeable extension in time; these are verbs of activity and process, such as *walk, throw, grow, change*. It tends not to be used with verbs of mental activity and feeling, such as *know, understand, remember, prefer, want, need, like*, or with verbs of nonaction such as *own, consist of, and seem*.

2. **Perfective aspect**, as in

He *has written* a letter.

The form is *have* (in any of its forms) + past participle. The perfective aspect presents us with two ways of interpreting the continuity of time. First, the event began in the past and has been completed, as in

Jane *has attended* college.

Second, the event continues up to the present, as in

Jane *has attended* college since last September.

In a sentence like this, with the present-tense *has* or *have* before the verb, the time adverbial is one of duration—*since last Sunday, for two months, the whole evening*—answering the question “How long?” But an adverbial of definite time (answering the question “When?”) is not commonly used with the perfective aspect. For example, this sentence is ungrammatical:

\*Jane *has attended* college last year.

#### Exercise 11-16

Cross out the adverbials that are improperly used.

1. I *have practiced* my piano lesson yesterday afternoon.
2. I *practiced* my piano lesson yesterday afternoon.
3. Her roommate *received* an award last Wednesday.
4. Her roommate *has received* an award last Wednesday.

5. Two years ago I have visited Spain.
6. She stayed in the hospital fifteen days.
7. She has stayed in the hospital fifteen days.
8. It has rained since one o'clock.
9. She has played tennis last night.
10. I have worked in the garden for three days.

Thus far we have discussed the perfective aspect only in its *has/have* form (traditionally called the "present perfect tense"). It also has a past form ("past perfect")

*They had studied.*

and a seldom-heard future form ("future perfect")

*They will have studied.*

Each of these bears a sense of completion, as in

*They had studied* hard before the exam was canceled.

*They will have read* eleven novels by the end of the semester.

The perfective aspect combines with the progressive in verb phrases such as

*George has been working.*

This verb phrase is perfective for three reasons. First, it has the form of *have* + past participle—in this case, *been*. Second, it cannot take an adverbial of definite time, like *yesterday*. And finally, it can take an adverbial of duration, as in

*George has been working* all week.

On the other hand it is progressive because the form includes *be* + verb + *-ing*, *been working*, and in meaning it expresses the going-on of an event. So we can say that such verb phrases carry a compound aspect, perfective-progressive.

#### Exercise 11-17

Label the aspect of the underlined verb phrases according to whether they are progressive, perfective, or perfective-progressive.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Hans was building a doghouse.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Charlotte had been sick.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Miss Garcia had been lecturing on water pollution.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. She was preparing for an exam.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. They have been practicing the whole day.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Have you done your homework?
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. The student is taking a test.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. We've been preparing for the worst.



### Mood in the Verb Phrase

Sometimes the form of a verb does not tell us so much about the time of an event as it does about an attitude of the speaker in relation to what is being said. Such information corresponds to what has traditionally been called "mood." English has three moods: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive. Up to this point, we have considered verb forms in relation to the indicative mood. The indicative mood is primarily concerned with the exchange of factual information and is the mood we use in most of our daily communication. It is perhaps easier to understand what the indicative mood is by contrasting it with the imperative and subjunctive moods.

The imperative mood is used in conveying commands such as "Play outside!" or "Bring me the book." By its nature, the imperative is usually used in the second person, though the actual pronoun *you* is rarely used. The imperative mood uses the stem form of the verb paradigm. This is also frequently the same form as the second person present indicative. But, of course, this latter generalization does not apply to the *be* verb, which has a greater variety of forms. In an imperative involving the *be* verb, we don't use a form resembling the second person indicative form but rather the stem form *be* itself. Thus, although the verb form of a second person present indicative statement (e.g., "You work hard") is essentially the same as the second person imperative ("Work hard") with most verbs, we can see a difference when we use the *be* verb and compare the second person indicative ("You are quiet") with the imperative ("Be quiet").

The subjunctive mood with its distinctive forms is not as commonly used as it once was. In fact, we could say that it is one part of the language that is dying a slow death. But it is still an important part of the Standard dialect, especially in writing. There are two uses of the subjunctive that you should be familiar with.

First, it is sometimes used with particular verbs to express some kind of desired course or outcome. This use is common in a few fixed expressions such as "Long live the queen!" or "God bless America!" Let's look at how this is different from the indicative and imperative moods. When we say "Long live the queen," we are speaking of the queen in the third person. If we were in the indicative mood and merely making a statement to say that the queen lives a long time, then we would have inflected the verb *live* with the third person singular present-tense inflection *-s*. But as you can see, the verb form is not inflected with *-s*, because it is not making a statement about the queen but is rather an expression of a wish or hope. The subjunctive expression "Long live the queen" might initially appear like an imperative, especially because it uses the stem form of the verb. But you will recall that the imperative is used for the second person (telling someone what to do) rather than for the third person (speaking about someone or something).

Sometimes the expression of a desired course or outcome is found in clauses following such verbs as *request*, *ask*, and *insist*, or following such adjectives as *necessary* and *essential*. In the examples below you will notice that the subjunctive mood uses the stem form of the verb.

**Examples:** She suggested that I *be* the cook.

We request that you *be* appropriately dressed.

The boss insisted that Willard *arrive* at eight sharp.  
 It is necessary that she *go* at once.  
 It is imperative that they *be* on time.

The second major use of the subjunctive mood is to express something that is contrary to fact. For example, when I say something like "If I were you I would buy that," I am posing a situation that is contrary to fact because I am not you. This use of the subjunctive employs a form that appears to be past tense but in fact has nothing to do with past time.

**Examples:** I wish I *were* in Italy.  
 Betty looks as if she *were* exhausted.  
 If he *were* really my friend, he would get me a ticket.

Sometimes the subjunctive is replaced by other forms or structures.

**Examples:** It is necessary for *her to go* at once.  
 It is necessary that she *should go* at once.  
 If he *was* really my friend, he would get me a ticket. (informal usage)  
 I wish I *was* in Italy. (informal usage)

### Exercise 11-18

Underline the subjunctive forms of the verb in these sentences.

1. If she ( was    were ) home, she would answer the phone.
2. I wish he ( was    were ) with me now.
3. God ( save    saves ) the King!
4. The director asked that Elizabeth ( stands    stand ) in the front row.
5. It is traditional that the table ( is    be ) decorated.
6. It is advisable that a lawyer ( writes    write ) the contract.
7. Rubinstein plays Chopin as though he ( was    were ) inspired.
8. The rules required that they ( are    be ) in uniform.
9. If I ( was    were ) the pilot, I'd avoid that thunderstorm.
10. The invitation requested that she ( answers    answer ) promptly.

### Exercise 11-19

For each of the sentences below, indicate whether the italicized verb represents the indicative, imperative, or subjunctive mood.

1. *Tell* us what you want now. \_\_\_\_\_
2. We *spoke* to your friend yesterday. \_\_\_\_\_
3. *Don't* expect me to agree. \_\_\_\_\_
4. She insisted that he *meet* with her. \_\_\_\_\_
5. I don't know if he *is* coming. \_\_\_\_\_
6. If he *were* a good student, he could get a scholarship. \_\_\_\_\_
7. *Be* a good example. \_\_\_\_\_
8. The athletes *were* not happy with the game. \_\_\_\_\_



9. Walk softly when you go past their dog.  
 10. I walk softly when I go past their dog.

### C. The Comparable Paradigm

The comparable paradigm is as follows:

Forms:	Stem	Comparative	Superlative
<b>Inflectional suffixes:</b>		{-ER cp}	{-EST sp}
<b>Models:</b>	sweet	sweeter	sweetest
	deadly	deadlier	deadliest
	friendly	friendlier	friendliest
	soon	sooner	soonest

This paradigm furnishes the pattern for these groups:

1. Nearly all one-syllable adjectives, e.g., *hot, small, proud*.
2. Some two-syllable adjectives, especially those ending in *-ly* and *-y*, such as *lovely, funny, polite*.
3. A few adverbials of one or two syllables, e.g., *fast, early*.
4. One preposition, *near*, as in "She sat nearest the door."

Other adjectives and adverbs usually take a preceding *more* or *most* in lieu of the inflectional *-er* and *-est* to indicate the comparative or superlative.

#### Exercise 11-20

Here is a list of two-syllable adjectives. Write the comparative and superlative forms, *-er* and *-est*, of those that you would inflect in this way.

- |              |       |            |       |
|--------------|-------|------------|-------|
| 1. angry     | _____ | 11. quiet  | _____ |
| 2. healthy   | _____ | 12. remote | _____ |
| 3. bitter    | _____ | 13. severe | _____ |
| 4. common    | _____ | 14. solid  | _____ |
| 5. cruel     | _____ | 15. stupid | _____ |
| 6. foolish   | _____ | 16. noble  | _____ |
| 7. handsome  | _____ | 17. dusty  | _____ |
| 8. honest    | _____ | 18. dirty  | _____ |
| 9. mellow    | _____ | 19. lively | _____ |
| 10. pleasant | _____ | 20. gentle | _____ |

**Exercise 11-21**

Here is a list of adverbials of one and two syllables. Write out the comparative and superlative forms of those that you might inflect with *-er* and *est*. Write *no* after the adverbials that you would not use with these inflectional endings.

- |             |       |             |       |
|-------------|-------|-------------|-------|
| 1. often    | _____ | 11. under   | _____ |
| 2. seldom   | _____ | 12. near    | _____ |
| 3. already  | _____ | 13. upward  | _____ |
| 4. gently   | _____ | 14. far     | _____ |
| 5. late     | _____ | 15. quick   | _____ |
| 6. ahead    | _____ | 16. above   | _____ |
| 7. weekly   | _____ | 17. loud    | _____ |
| 8. perhaps  | _____ | 18. quickly | _____ |
| 9. sidewise | _____ | 19. high    | _____ |
| 10. slow    | _____ | 20. low     | _____ |

A few adjectives have suppletive and irregular forms in the comparative and superlative, such as *good*:

good      better      best

Thus the morpheme {good} has three allomorphs: /gʊd/, /bet-/, and /be-/. The allomorphic diagrams of *better* and *best* go like this:

/betər/ = /gʊd > bet-/ + /-ər/

/best/ = /gʊd > be-/ + /-st/

In the last one the /-st/ is an allomorph of {-est}, spelled *-est*.

**Exercise 11-22**

Write the forms of the comparative and superlative of these words.

- |                    |       |               |       |
|--------------------|-------|---------------|-------|
| 1. well            | _____ | 4. little     | _____ |
| 2. bad, ill, badly | _____ | 5. much, many | _____ |
| 3. old             | _____ | 6. few        | _____ |

The capacity to take the inflectional suffixes *-er* and *-est* is one of the signals that enables us to distinguish adjectives from nouns in the position of modifier preceding a noun. In the cluster *a stone fence* the *stone* is not an adjective because we would never say *a stoner fence* or *the stonest fence*. Thus, although the word *stone* may function like an adjective, it still retains its identity as a noun.

**Exercise 11-23**

In the blanks write Aj (adjective) or NA (nonadjective) to label the italicized words.



- |                                 |                                    |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. the <i>light</i> plane _____ | 6. that <i>clay</i> pot _____      |
| 2. the <i>night</i> plane _____ | 7. her <i>red</i> davenport _____  |
| 3. a <i>strange</i> idea _____  | 8. a <i>dull</i> volume _____      |
| 4. a <i>glass</i> vase _____    | 9. a <i>sound</i> conclusion _____ |
| 5. his <i>steel</i> file _____  | 10. my <i>close</i> friend _____   |

Even this inflectional test, however, must be applied judiciously because, as you have seen, some adjectives, particularly those with multiple syllables, may not take an inflectional ending.

### Some Observations and Applications

One of the features that distinguishes nonstandard dialects from standard ones is the treatment of the inflectional paradigm. As a college student, you are not so likely to say or write something like "It don't matter that he seen the geeses." But in this chapter we have looked at linguistic items such as collective nouns and the plural forms of foreign borrowings, which might be useful information for you as you edit and proofread your writing to maintain grammatical number agreement between subjects and their verbs, or between pronouns and the nouns they refer to. We have also noted that the choice between using the inflectional possessive or the *of* possessive tends to correspond with whether a particular noun is animate or not. A conscious awareness of this stylistic tendency may help you in choices you make in your own writing.

All of this is not to say that usage and stylistic decisions must slavishly adhere to the prescriptive norms set down by traditional grammarians. With many usage issues, writers and editors must make informed choices that take into account the nature of the writing task and the audience. But writers who are better informed so that they can make conscious decisions will be more resourceful than writers who are not even aware that a particular usage is an issue. It is of course true that attention to a grammatical issue such as number agreement is not as important within a writing task as developing ideas and organizing information effectively, but it can help in proofreading and editing your own writing for forms that might otherwise distract some readers from seeing the value of your ideas.

In another application, those who teach non-native speakers of English to acquire the language must have a clear understanding of how the language is put together. And an important part of this is found not only in the inflectional paradigms, but also in the forms and uses of the verb aspects such as the perfective and progressive constructions that we examined in this chapter.

An understanding of the inflectional paradigm is not just a matter of interest for those seeking to monitor or teach written and spoken English. For example, some law enforcement agencies have consulted with linguists who examine features of discourse in the writing or speech produced by unknown or anonymous suspects. Among the important features that can be examined are characteristic

patterns involving a person's handling of inflectional or paradigmatic forms. Because people have distinctive ways of expressing themselves, such linguistic analysis can help narrow down a list of suspects.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>4</sup>For an example of forensic linguistics, see "Forensic Analysis of Personal Written Texts: A Case Study" by Robert Eagleson in *Language and the Law*, ed. John Gibbons. London: Longman, 1994, pp. 362-73. This article has also been reprinted in *Linguistics at Work: A Reader of Applications*, ed. Dallin D. Oaks. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers, 1998, pp. 30-39.



## Parts of Speech: Form Classes

Time flies like an arrow; fruit flies like a banana.  
(Groucho Marx)

In the previous chapter we examined the inflectional paradigms of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. In this chapter we will show how such inflectional morphology, as well as additional derivational morphology, can provide useful information for identifying words belonging to these four classes, or parts of speech. The paradigmatic forms of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are so distinctive and useful in determining the class membership of a particular word that we will refer to these classes as “form classes.” Now consider an illustration of how class membership may be assigned by form. If the form of a word can take the plural inflectional morpheme {-s ps}, or if the form ends in a noun-forming derivational suffix, such as *-ness* or *-ism*, it will be labeled a noun. Form classes are large and open; they readily admit new members, that is, new words coming into the language from other languages, as well as new words formed within English, such as *workaholic* and *minibus*.

In contrast to form classes there are also some words such as prepositions and pronouns whose class is not identifiable by distinctive morphology. The membership in these classes, which we will call “structure classes,” is closed and relatively small. Thus, although the membership of these classes cannot be identified by form, it can readily be memorized. We will be examining the structure classes in the next chapter.

Before we examine some of the morphology that characterizes nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs and how such morphological knowledge can be used to determine membership in a particular part of speech, some historical background would be appropriate. Many people who discuss grammatical classes in our language take for granted an inherited set of classes or part-of-speech classification into which all words must be fit. But the history of grammatical analysis and classification in English, particularly involving part-of-speech classification, reveals some interesting challenges and controversies relating to such classification.



Early in the 1500s a Renaissance Latinist, William Lyly, aided by Colet and Erasmus, prepared materials for the teaching of Latin at St. Paul's School, London. These materials were later published and became known as *Lyly's Grammar*. This was the first Latin grammar written in English. In 1540 it was "authorized" by Henry VIII, to the exclusion of competitors, and remained in wide use for three centuries. Most English schoolboys, as well as many in America, learned Latin from its pages. Its users included Shakespeare, Spenser, Jonson, Milton, Dryden, Pope, Samuel Johnson, and other famous men of letters. Because the explanation of Latin grammar was written in English, as the quotation below will show, this Latin grammar became a handy model for those writers who were later to write English grammars:

A nune is the name of a thinge, that may be seene, felte, hearde, or under-stande: As the name of my hande in Latin is Manus: the name of an house is Domus: the name of goodnes is Bonitas.

The heading of the first section (in the 1567 edition) is of interest to anyone studying the parts of speech in English:

An Introduction of the eyght parts of Latin speache. In Speache be these eight partes followinge:

Noune	} declined	Adverbe	} undeclined
Pronoune		Coniunction	
Verbe		Preposition	
Participle		Interiection	

In the text the adjective is a subclass of noun.

In 1640 Ben Jonson, who had cut his teeth on Lyly, brought out his little *English Grammar*. In this he wrote concerning the parts of speech:

In our English speech we number the same parts with the Latines.

Noune,	Adverbe,
Pronoune,	Conjunction,
Verbe,	Præposition,
Participle,	Interjection.

Only, we adde a ninth, which is the article. . . .

The English grammarians who followed Jonson continued to use the Latin parts of speech, but these writers varied in the number of parts of speech they employed, from two to nine. By the 1760s the participle had been dropped for the most part, and such eminent grammarians as the scientist Joseph Priestley and Bishop Robert Lowth chose these eight parts of speech: noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection.

The question of which parts of speech would be used to classify English words was settled for many decades to come by Lindley Murray, whose *English Grammar* in 1795 was the first of a host of original grammars, revised grammars, and abridged grammars that appeared under his name. The estimated number of Murray grammars



sold on both sides of the Atlantic is between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000, a world record. His influence was enormous, and he had many competitors. Murray espoused the eight parts of speech of Lowth, to which he added the article, and most of his competitors followed this lead.

In America about thirty English grammars appeared before 1800, and 265 more grammars came into print between 1800 and 1850. In general these adopted Murray's parts of speech. So the use of Latin-derived parts of speech to sort out our English vocabulary has had a long tradition, one that is still alive today. For you will find these same parts of speech—article, noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection—in current dictionaries and grammars. These parts of speech can be satisfactorily employed to classify the words of English if we make some additions and refinements and if we define anew each part of speech. The latter condition is necessary because the conventional definitions are faulty. Let us test a few of them. For a starter try this sentence:

The motionless boy stared at the flames.

A verb, we are told in conventional grammars, is a word that shows action or state of being. In the sentence above we note that the only word showing action is *flames*, which, according to the definition above, must therefore be a verb. We also find a word showing state of being, namely *motionless*, so this too must be a verb, according to the definition. How much easier it would be for both student and teacher to conclude, with more exact definitions, that *flames* is a noun because it changes form to show plurality, that *motionless* is an adjective because it is composed of the noun *motion* plus the suffix *-less*, and that *stared* is the verb because it changes its form to show past time.

We are also told in conventional, or traditional, grammars that an adjective is a word that modifies a noun. This statement is true. But it obscures the fact that any, or almost any, part of speech can modify a noun.<sup>1</sup> Here are some instances where we should perhaps be unwilling to call the italicized words adjectives:

The *evening* train

The *waiting* train

The *stolen* box

*Our* friend

The *upstairs* room

The *in* group

The *above* statement

An *if* clause

Next, the adverb. This is traditionally defined as a word that modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb. This definition produces these alleged adverbs:

It can't be *that* good.

*Ice*-cold lemonade

<sup>1</sup>That is to say, learners may turn it around mentally to "a word that modifies a noun is an adjective," which is false.

*Boiling* hot water  
That tree is *fifty feet* high.

The italicized words above modify adjectives. Should they be called adverbs?  
Now let us compare two sentences:

He ran *swiftly*.  
She was *very* sick.

In the first sentence *swiftly* modifies the verb *ran*, and in the second *very* modifies the adjective *sick*. But can *very* modify verbs, as in "He ran *very*"? It seems as if words like *very*, *quite*, and *rather*, which do not modify verbs, ought to be distinguished from those that do.

Another difficulty with the definitions of the traditional parts of speech is that they are based on two different criteria. The definitions of noun and verb are based on meaning; the rest are based on function or their use in the sentence. The result of this double standard can be seen in a phrase such as

a red shirt.

The word *red* is the name of a particular color and hence is a noun. But *red* modifies the noun *shirt* and hence is an adjective. Likewise, in

the fighting dog

*fighting* means an action and is therefore a verb. But it modifies the noun *dog* and is therefore an adjective.

In view of complications like these it appears that the Latin-derived parts of speech, as traditionally defined, do not offer an effective instrument of language analysis. Instead of using them we will set up a more elaborate but more workable set of word classes (that is, parts of speech). We will now consider the various parts of speech, looking first at the form classes and then later, in the next chapter, examining the structure classes.

## A. Nouns

Nouns are identified as nouns by two aspects of form, their inflectional morphemes and their derivational morphemes. The inflectional morphemes, you remember, are the noun plural {-s pl} and the noun possessive {-s ps}. Any word that has the possessive {-s ps} is a noun (except for nonstandard uses, like "the town I come from's mayor"). Any word that has the plural {-s pl} is also a noun. And if it does not have the {-s pl} but can take it in the same position, sometimes with a readjustment of context to allow for a plural form, it is a noun. Thus in

The author seems tired,

*author* is a noun because it can be changed to the plural in the same position, with the readjustment of *seems* to its plural form *seem*:

The *authors* seem tired.



But in the sentence

Her brother may author a new biography

*author* cannot be made plural in this position and in fact is not a noun.

### Exercise 12-1

Underline the words that are nouns according to the inflectional criteria just above. After each, explain your choice with these numbers:

1. Has possessive morpheme.
2. Has plural morpheme.
3. Can take plural morpheme in same position, with or without a readjusted context to allow for a plural form.

The first column is for the first noun and the second column for the second noun, if there is one.

- |   |       |       |
|---|-------|-------|
| 1. Our president has a new plan.                | _____ | _____ |
| 2. The janitors had not seen the umbrella.      | _____ | _____ |
| 3. The counselor may plan a different approach. | _____ | _____ |
| 4. My aunt always mothers her youngest son.     | _____ | _____ |
| 5. Mother's cake never tasted so good.          | _____ | _____ |
| 6. The chef's sisters arrived.                  | _____ | _____ |

In addition we will consider as nouns those words that have only a plural form, such as *clothes*, *goods*, *vitals*, *glasses* (spectacles), *oats*, *pants*, *pliers*, *scissors*, and *thanks*.

Nouns are identified not only by inflectional morphemes but also by noun-forming derivational suffixes added to verbs, adjectives, nouns, adverbs, and bound forms. Compare these sentences:

The quality is pure.

The quality is purity.

It is the form of *purity*, with its *-ity* added to an adjective, which signifies that it is a noun. In general the suffix itself, together with our consciousness of the part of speech to which it has been attached, provides the signal of nounness. Here is a partial list of word pairs, the second word in each containing one of the suffixes that enable us to classify a word as a noun.

#### Source Verb<sup>2</sup>

accept  
achieve  
advise /z/

#### Derived Noun

acceptance  
achievement  
advice /s/

<sup>2</sup>In this list and those to follow, the words labeled "source" usually provide the source in the sense that they take an affix to form the derived word. However, in a few cases—such as *bath* and *bathe*, *associate* /et/ and *associate* /et/—we have significantly contrastive forms but with no discernible source-result relationship.

arrive  
assist  
block  
break  
complain  
contemplate  
deceive  
deceive  
decide  
defend  
deform  
deform  
deliver  
depart  
draft  
help  
liberate  
lie  
paint  
purify  
save

**Source Adjective**

kind  
brave  
ideal  
ideal  
important  
pure  
supreme  
true  
violent  
wise  
wise

**Source Noun**

advocate  
(or source verb)  
Asia  
book  
cartoon  
coward

arrival  
assistant  
blockade  
breakage  
complaint  
contemplation  
deceit  
deception  
decision  
defense  
deformity  
deformation  
delivery  
departure  
draftee  
helper<sup>3</sup>  
liberator<sup>3</sup>  
liar<sup>3</sup>  
painting  
purification  
savior<sup>3</sup>

**Derived Noun**

kindness  
bravery  
idealist  
idealism  
importance  
purity  
supremacy  
truth  
violence  
wisdom  
wizard

**Derived Noun**

advocacy  
Asian (-n, -an)  
booklet  
cartoonist  
cowardice

<sup>3</sup>The suffixes *-er*, *-or*, *-ar* are the same in spoken English.



dog	doggie
friend	friendship
gang	gangster
king	kingdom
Levi	Levite
lemon	lemonade
mathematics	mathematician
mile	mileage
monarch	monarchy
murder	murderess
novel	novelette
pagan	paganism
priest	priesthood
musket	musketeer
slave	slavery
Vietnam	Vietnamese

These same noun-forming suffixes are sometimes attached to bound stems, as in *dentist* and *tailor*.

### Optional Exercise 12-2

You will find it rewarding to try to locate a matching set for each pair of words. This is an excellent way to become well acquainted with these noun-forming derivational suffixes.

### Exercise 12-3

Underline each noun that can be identified by its derivational suffix. In the first blank write the source verb, adjective, or noun. In the second blank write the noun-forming suffix.

1. Jim was distressed by his failure. \_\_\_\_\_
2. The payment was not large. \_\_\_\_\_
3. What did the assistant say? \_\_\_\_\_
4. He was a clever sailor. \_\_\_\_\_
5. The catcher missed the ball. \_\_\_\_\_
6. A collision was narrowly averted. \_\_\_\_\_
7. There is a leakage under the sink. \_\_\_\_\_
8. The history class was studying the Reformation. \_\_\_\_\_
9. Who made the discovery? \_\_\_\_\_
10. The amusement proved dull. \_\_\_\_\_
11. She is often troubled by sickness. \_\_\_\_\_
12. His refusal was polite. \_\_\_\_\_
13. He swam the width of the river. \_\_\_\_\_
14. Can you doubt his sincerity? \_\_\_\_\_
15. Who does not enjoy freedom from want? \_\_\_\_\_

- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_

## B. Verbs

Verbs have a maximum of five different forms, as you have already learned. All five are shown in the forms of *rise*:

Stem	Present Third-Person Singular	Present Participle	Past Tense	Past Participle
rise	rises	rising	rose	risen

Any word that has three or more of these forms is said to belong to the form class called the verb. For example, *cut* has the minimum of three forms—*cut*, *cuts*, *cutting*. One form, *cut*, does triple duty: the stem, which in most cases is the same as the present tense (except the third-person singular); the past tense; and the past participle. *Depart* has four forms, (*depart*, *departs*, *departing*, and *departed*), and *break* has five (*break*, *breaks*, *breaking*, *broke*, *broken*). Therefore, *cut*, *depart*, and *break* belong to the form class *verb*.

### Exercise 12-4

In each of the sentences below, one verb is italicized. Indicate in the first column how many of the five forms it has. In the second column identify the form used in the sentence.

**Example:** Jim *lost* his slide rule.

- 4 past tense



8. The ruler is *lying* on the table. \_\_\_\_\_
9. Have you *bought* the refreshments? \_\_\_\_\_
10. The ball *sank* into the pond. \_\_\_\_\_

The derivational suffixes by which a verb is identified are few. This list contains verbs with such suffixes and the source parts of speech from which the verbs are derived.

Source Noun	Derived Verb
bath	bathe
beauty	beautify
colony	colonize
length	lengthen
strife	strive

Source Adjective	Derived Verb
ripe	ripen
safe	save
solemn	solemnize
solid	solidify

These verb-forming suffixes are occasionally found combined with bound stems, as in *sanctify*.

### Exercise 12-5

Underline each verb that can be identified by its derivational suffix. In the first blank write the source noun or adjective. In the second, write the verb-forming suffix. Do not include any inflectional suffixes in the second blank.

1. He amplified his statement. \_\_\_\_\_
2. The judge personifies justice itself. \_\_\_\_\_
3. Can you prove your contention? \_\_\_\_\_
4. This paragraph will weaken your paper. \_\_\_\_\_
5. Those dorm rules should be liberalized. \_\_\_\_\_
6. Mann's novel may strengthen your intellectual life. \_\_\_\_\_
7. Why do you idolize that actor? \_\_\_\_\_
8. That tale must have terrorized you. \_\_\_\_\_
9. I can't soften it. \_\_\_\_\_
10. Dylan was frightened by the spectacle. \_\_\_\_\_

## C. Adjectives

You may recall from the previous chapter the comparable paradigm, with its compared words having the *-er* and *-est* inflectional suffixes. These suffixes enable us to

set up a class of words called "comparables," but they do not permit us by themselves to separate into two classes the words traditionally called adjectives (e.g., *rich, kind*) and adverbs (e.g., *soon, often*). We can, however, dip into the reservoir of derivational suffixes and define adjectives by a combined test in this way: A word that is inflected with *-er* and *-est* and that is capable of forming adverbs with *-ly* and/or nouns with *-ness* is called an adjective. Although words passing this test are adjectives, there are some words that do not pass this test and are still adjectives.

**Exercise 12-6**

Fill in the blanks as follows: first column, *-er* form; second column, *-est* form; third column, *-ly* adverb form; fourth column, *-ness* noun form.

	<i>-er</i>	<i>-est</i>	<i>-ly</i>	<i>-ness</i>
1. close	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. icy	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. sweet	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. sad	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. high	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. sunny	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. gentle	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. small	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. little	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. fast	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. friendly	_____	_____	_____	_____
12. natural	_____	_____	_____	_____

Which one of the words above, though an adjective, does not pass the test that was outlined above?

In addition to the adjective test just described we can usually identify adjectives by derivational suffixes alone. With most of these words the degrees of comparison are expressed by *more* and *most* rather than by *-er* and *-est*. The adjective-forming suffixes are illustrated in this list.

Source Noun	Derived Adjective
age	aged
child	childish
cloud	cloudy
consul	consular
crystal	crystalline
culture	cultural
economy	economic
economy	economical
fortune	fortunate
friend	friendly



moment	momentary
peace	peaceable
penny	penniless
picture	picturesque
pomp	pompous
power	powerful
science	scientific
sense	sensible
suburb	suburban
wood	wooden

**Source Verb**

associate /ət/  
collect  
continue  
exist  
expect  
prohibit  
prosper  
read  
restore  
shake

**Source Adjective**

dead  
red

**Derived Adjective**

associate /ət/ (also used as a noun)  
collective  
continual  
existent<sup>4</sup>  
expectant  
prohibitory  
prosperous  
readable<sup>5</sup>  
restorative  
shaky

**Derived Adjective**

deadly  
reddish

These adjective-forming suffixes and others are frequently added to bound forms:

pens-	+ ive	> pensive
cred-	+ ible	> credible
loc-	+ al	> local
splend-	+ id	> splendid
frag-	+ ile	> fragile
cert-	+ ain	> certain
domest-	+ ic	> domestic
curi-	+ ous	> curious
terri-	+ fic	> terrific

**Exercise 12-7**

Here is a list of adjectives formed by derivational suffixes. In the first blank write the source noun, verb, adjective, or bound form. In the second write the adjective-forming suffix.

<sup>4</sup>Also *-ant*, as in *observant*.

<sup>5</sup>*-ible* is a variant spelling of *-able*. The source word is commonly a verb, as in *discernible* and *corruptible*, or a bound base, as in *visible* and *credible*.

- [illegible]

## D. Adverbs

The adverb has four suffixes to set it apart from other form classes—the derivational suffixes *-ly*, *-wise*, *-ward*, and *-s*—and the free form *like*.

- ### Derived Adverb

fortunately

- ### Derived Adverb

clockwise

This *-wise* suffix, about five centuries old in English, has taken on renewed vitality in recent years and today may be heard attached to almost any noun to form an adverb. But this suffix must be used cautiously. A usage note in the *American Heritage Dictionary* (3rd ed.) indicates that although the use of *-wise* to mean “in the manner or direction of” is established, its “*vaguer*” usage to mean “with reference to” hasn’t achieved the same level of respectability.

- ### Derived Adverb

northward



Words consisting of a source noun + *-ward* are at home in the positions of both adjectives and adverbs, as in

1. The *earthward* drop of the parachutist was spectacular.  
(adjective position)
2. As she stepped out the plane door and parachuted *earthward*, she momentarily lost consciousness.  
(adverb position)
3. A population movement *cityward* has been observed.  
(adjective position)
4. He looked *cityward* for a sign of the train.  
(adverb position)

Here we will label such words as adverbs because *-ward* has a directional meaning that is usually considered adverbial (see entry "adverb" in *Webster's Third NID*). This applies to words like *shoreward*, *skyward*, *landward*, *churchward*, *deathward*, *manward*, *riverward*, and *heavenward*. It does not apply to words like *forward*, *inward*, *downward*. These are not formed on a source noun.

In examples 1 and 3 above, *earthward* and *cityward* are adverbs in form. Later you will learn that they are adjectivals in position and modifiers by function.

#### 4. Source Noun

night

#### Derived Adverb

nights

This *-s* suffix is a remnant of the Old English genitive singular suffix *-es*. It is attached to words denoting a time period, such as

He works *days*.

He is busy *mealtimes*.

She plays golf *Saturdays*.

The italicized words here are classified as adverbs. They could, with equal justification, be considered plural nouns, adverbial in position. In addition, *-s* is suffixed to words in the *-ward* series, resulting in two forms of each word. For example,

Jeanne stepped *backward* / *backwards*.

They looked *toward* / *towards* the speaker.

Finally, this same *-s* closes some adverbs, such as *always*, *unawares*, and the adverb suffix *-wise* (formerly, the genitive of *way*). It is sometimes called the adverbial *-s*.

#### 5. Source Noun

student

#### Derived Adverb

studentlike

#### 6. Source Adjective

casual

#### Derived Adverb

casual-like

The free form *like* must be used selectively. Even though it easily combines with many words, some standard speakers object to it.

**Exercise 12-8**

Classify the italicized words according to the form class to which they belong: Av (adverb) or Aj (adjective).

1. Your ideas seem *sensible*.
2. They are playing *happily*.
3. He turned the hands *clockwise*.
4. Be *careful*.
5. Have you seen the paper *lately*?
6. It's fragile. Lift it *easylike*.
7. She walked *homeward*.
8. *Luckily*, the brake was set.
9. The student's reports were *creative*.
10. Her report was very *specific*.
11. You *richly* deserve the prize.
12. Tharp is *professor-wise* pretty knowledgeable.
13. Annie is a waitress *evenings*.
14. A Gothic spire pointed *heavenward*.
15. *Mondays* she sleeps late.

There remains a number of words that do not have (or do not allow) an inflectional or derivational suffix that can be used to classify them in one of the four form classes—noun, verb, adjective, or adverb. We will refer to these words as “nonsuffixing forms.” Here are examples:

1. Words that are traditionally called nouns:  
pathos, advice, tennis, evidence, botany, charisma.
2. Words traditionally called adverbs:  
often, seldom, also, never, perhaps.
3. Words traditionally known as adjectives:  
antic, menial, only.
4. Most of the words in the structure classes:  
the, must, quite, from, and, since, which, all.

Although these leftovers, and numerous others, do not contain suffixes that signal their inclusion in one of the form classes, this is no cause for concern. Grammarians frequently employ the dual criteria of form and position (often termed word order) to sort out the parts of speech, and so far we have employed only form for this purpose.

Later, in the section on syntax, we will classify words by the second criterion, position, using the parallel parts-of-speech classes of nominal, verbal, adjectival, and adverbial; and then many of the nonsuffixing words above will fall into place. However, some of the remaining words belong to structure classes and thus should not be expected to conform to characteristic patterns of the form classes. But even after classifying all of these, there may remain a few outcasts, for no part-of-speech system has ever been devised for English that neatly and fully classifies all the words of English.



**Exercise 12-9**

Classify the italicized words according to whether their suffix helps identify them as N (noun), V (verb), Aj (adjective), or Av (adverb). In the case of words allowing no suffix, label them as NS (nonsuffixing).

1. Sue likes to play *golf*.
2. Only the *dregs* are left.
3. There will be a *meeting* at four tomorrow afternoon.
4. Which nation *colonized* Tierra del Fuego?
5. Every social class has its own *snobbery*.
6. May you be healthy and *prosperous*.
7. Be careful not to run *aground*.
8. She smiled *cheerfully*.
9. The *quickest* way is to use your pocket calculator.
10. We counted the tickets in *haste*.

**Some Observations and Applications**

Learning to identify nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs by their form is an important skill because it prepares you for additional analysis and work with language. In a later chapter you will be learning to identify nominals, which occupy the same position as nouns, and you will be introduced to their functions, such as subject or direct object. You must have a clear idea of what a noun is before you can master the recognition of nominals and their functions. And being able to identify such grammatical elements is important in the work that you will do in revising and editing your own writing or in helping others to do the same. For example, being able to recognize and identify the grammatical subject of a sentence or clause is important in recognizing and removing such faulty constructions as fragments, comma splices, and subject-verb agreement errors. But beyond editing, grammatical knowledge about functional categories will also help you to study and learn a foreign language more efficiently or to help others to do so.

Recognizing the different part of speech categories is vital for those who program computers to process human language (natural language processing). These categories are important because they correspond to actual language behavior by native speakers. Nouns as a class behave differently from verbs. And verbs behave differently from adjectives and adverbs. Not only do the different parts of speech utilize different affixes, but they also appear in different slots within a sentence and combine with different kinds of structures. Because computers can only produce and interpret language that they have been adequately programmed to process, those who program computers must have a thorough understanding of the language, including the parts of speech and their characteristics.

## Parts of Speech: Structure Classes

The story is told about Winston Churchill that on one occasion when he was corrected for ending a sentence with a preposition he responded with something like, "this is the sort of nonsense up with which I shall not put."

In this chapter we will continue our examination of the parts of speech. But our focus will be on those words such as *the*, *could*, *unless*, *him*, *of*, *very*, and *every*, which do not belong to classes that have affixes identifying their part of speech. These kinds of words belong to the parts of speech that we will call "structure classes." They have three characteristics:

1. Members of a given structure class are recognized mainly by position, as they have no characteristics of form in common and, excepting a few, do not change form.
2. A structure class is small, the largest one (prepositions) having only about fifty members.
3. A structure class has a stable membership and is a closed class, that is, it rarely admits new members.

Because structure classes are small, stable, and closed, we get to know their member words individually. For example, we are never in doubt about *could*. We know that it is an auxiliary and that its fellows are such words as *would*, *should*, *will*, and *can*. Thus, instead of defining these classes, it will be enough to describe their position and list the membership.

### A. Qualifiers

The qualifier occurs in the position just before an adjectival or an adverbial as shown by the empty slots in these sentences.

The dinner was \_\_\_\_\_ good.

She performed \_\_\_\_\_ skillfully.



Thus it is evident that such words as *very* and *rather* are qualifiers. The function of a qualifier is to modify; and the word following the qualifier, such as *good* and *skillfully* (that is, the word modified), is called the head.

### Exercise 13-1

Underline the qualifiers. In each blank indicate whether the qualifier modifies an Aj (adjective) or an Av (adverb).

1. That is very kind of you. \_\_\_\_\_
2. It is too hot in this classroom. \_\_\_\_\_
3. You played quite acceptably in the second half. \_\_\_\_\_
4. Marion was somewhat unhappy. \_\_\_\_\_
5. A rather shy boy was trying to dance. \_\_\_\_\_

Most qualifiers are uninflected words, like those in the preceding exercise. However, the qualifier position can accept any form class, as these examples show:

Noun: The table was only *inches* wide.

Verb: The water is *boiling* hot.

Adjective: My dress seems *lighter* blue than yours.

Adverb: You did *fairly* well.

Each of the italicized terms above is a qualifier by position. Its function is to modify.

### Exercise 13-2

Indicate the form class of the italicized qualifiers, using the abbreviations N, V, Aj, or Av. If a qualifier cannot take a distinguishing suffix, then label it NS (nonsuffixing).

1. You are *too* kind. \_\_\_\_\_
2. Are you *completely* happy with your courses? \_\_\_\_\_
3. This water is *freezing* cold. \_\_\_\_\_
4. The bottle is *bone* dry. \_\_\_\_\_
5. He is *fighting* mad. \_\_\_\_\_
6. The novel proved *extremely* distasteful. \_\_\_\_\_
7. I feel *quite* fine, thank you. \_\_\_\_\_
8. Dorothy was *rather* gracious in her response. \_\_\_\_\_
9. I prefer a *brighter* red tie. \_\_\_\_\_
10. Monty appears *enormously* wealthy. \_\_\_\_\_
11. The baby is a *month* old. \_\_\_\_\_

A few qualifiers have the same form as adjectives—for instance, *pretty* good, *mighty* fine, *jolly* hot, *great* big, *full* well, *dead* right. In the qualifier position, however, these do not take *-er* and *-est*, so we will consider them as uninflected qualifiers that are homophones of adjectives.

Some qualifiers are not used before all adjectivals and adverbials but have a limited distribution. We will not take time to investigate the vagaries of such distributions, but a glance at a few examples might prove instructive.

<i>stark</i> naked	<i>much</i> alive	<i>about</i> exhausted
<i>clean</i> out	<i>just</i> under	<i>brand</i> new
<i>fresh</i> out	<i>almost</i> ready	<i>plumb</i> crazy
<i>right</i> along	<i>precious</i> little	<i>real</i> good
<i>beastly</i> cold	<i>that</i> good	

Sometimes noun phrases and idiomatic expressions are used in the position before adjectivals and adverbials and must therefore be regarded as qualifiers. Among the common ones are

a lot	kind of
a great deal	sort of
a little	a bit (of)

With qualifiers of adjectivals and adverbials in the comparative degree, the list is somewhat different. For example, look at these ungrammatical sentences:

- \*I feel *much* good.
- \*I feel *very* better.

As a native speaker you know at once that these are un-English. Now switch the qualifiers and the sentences will feel comfortable, like a well-tailored suit. The point is that the qualifiers used before a comparative are not quite the same ones as those before the positive degree. The first question of the following exercise will enable you to identify those qualifiers that are used with the comparative.

### Exercise 13-3

You are given below a list of words and phrases that are qualifiers when in the qualifier slot. Following the list are questions to answer.

a bit	kind of	a whole lot
a good deal	least	enough
a great deal	less	even
almost	any	indeed
a lot	awful	just
lots	pretty	some
mighty	quite	somewhat
more	rather	sort of
most	real	still
much	right	too
no	so	very
plenty		

Remember that some words on this list have a homophone in another class, but looking at the position they occupy can help confirm their identity as qualifiers.



- Adjectival: She was *pretty*.  
 Qualifier: We ran *pretty* fast.  
 Adverbial: She is coming *too*.  
 Qualifier: They are *too* picky.  
 Nominal: I've had *plenty*.  
 Qualifier: He was *plenty* angry. (dialectal)

### Questions

1. Which qualifiers can occur in the slot before comparatives, as in one of these sentences?

She is \_\_\_\_\_ happier.

Is she \_\_\_\_\_ happier?

2. Consider the qualifiers *indeed*, *right*, *still*, *just*, *enough*, and *even*. Which qualifier has a position after, not before, its head?

3. Which two of those qualifiers can occur either before or after the head?

4. Which of those qualifiers can occur in the slot below?

She is coming \_\_\_\_\_ now.

## B. Prepositions

Prepositions are words like *of*, *in*, and *to* that are usually followed by a noun, noun phrase, personal pronoun, or noun-substitute, which are called the object of the preposition. The unit of preposition-plus-object of preposition is called a prepositional phrase.

**Examples:** George sat *between* the two deans.

George jumped *on* it.

George went *from* this *to* that.

English has a small group of prepositions, of which some frequently used ones are *at*, *by*, *for*, *from*, *in*, *of*, *on*, *to*, and *with*. Others include such two-syllable words as *about*, *above*, *after*, *against*, *among*, *before*, *behind*, *below*, *beneath*, *between*, *beyond*, *despite*, *except*, *inside*, *into*, *onto*, *outside*, *over*, *under*, and *upon*.

### Exercise 13-4

In the sentences and questions below, underline the preposition once and the object of the preposition twice. If there is no object of the preposition, write *no* in the blank

after the sentence. In some cases you will find that the object of the preposition has been moved up earlier in the sentence or question.

1. The car stopped at the station. \_\_\_\_\_
2. We walked under the tree. \_\_\_\_\_
3. He came from the farm. \_\_\_\_\_
4. Did the party advance into the jungle? \_\_\_\_\_
5. This is the farm he came from. \_\_\_\_\_
6. These roses are for you. \_\_\_\_\_
7. The chimpanzee in the cage was yawning. \_\_\_\_\_
8. The boy stood on a barrel. \_\_\_\_\_
9. We know what you are looking for. \_\_\_\_\_
10. The plumber washed in the basin. \_\_\_\_\_
11. Our train passed beneath them. \_\_\_\_\_
12. The rose by the window was wilted. \_\_\_\_\_
13. He walked to the last platform. \_\_\_\_\_
14. What is it for? \_\_\_\_\_
15. We invested despite the risk. \_\_\_\_\_

Some of the words we have been dealing with can be either prepositions or adverbials. Compare

- Preposition:** She looked *up* the stairs.  
**Adverbial:** She looked *up*.  
**Preposition:** They went *inside* the house.  
**Adverbial:** They went *inside*.

### Exercise 13-5

Underline the prepositions once and the adverbials twice.

1. The swimmers waited below.
2. The swimmers waited below the dam.
3. She liked to sit near.
4. She sat near the window.
5. The paint bucket fell off the porch.
6. The paint bucket fell off.
7. The refreshments came after.
8. The refreshments came after the program.
9. I haven't seen him since.
10. I haven't seen him since yesterday.

In addition to the prepositions already mentioned, there is in English a group of *-ing* prepositions that all have a verb as a stem. Here are some of the more common



ones: *assuming, beginning, barring, concerning, considering, during, following, including, involving, pending, regarding, succeeding*.<sup>1</sup>

**Examples:** *Considering* your loss, the bill will not be sent.

*Assuming* the accuracy of the report, action must be taken at once.

We will delay the papers, *pending* arrival of the contract.

### Exercise 13-6

Underline the *-ing* prepositions once and the *-ing* verbs twice.

1. Barring bad weather, the picnic will begin at eleven.
2. There will be a program following dinner.
3. She is only following her orders after all.
4. May I have a conference regarding my examination?
5. He was regarding the newcomer with curiosity.
6. Considering the time, we had better stop now.
7. The entire squad, including the water boy, will make the trip.
8. I am including damage to my window in the bill.
9. The store will be closed weekends, beginning Saturday.
10. He was vague concerning the details.

The final group is composed of compound prepositions. These are relatively numerous and of various types. Often it is difficult to say whether a word group should be considered a preposition or not. Here is a short list of two types.

#### Two-Part

together with  
contrary to  
ahead of  
due to  
apart from  
up to  
out of  
away from  
up at  
as for  
inside of  
because of  
owing to  
instead of

#### With Noun

on account of  
in spite of  
with regard to  
in advance of  
in front of  
on behalf of  
in place of  
in lieu of  
in addition to  
by way of  
in comparison with  
by dint of  
in case of  
by means of  
by way of

<sup>1</sup>The stem of *during* is *dure*, an obsolete English verb meaning "to last." The stem of *pending* is *pend-*, which comes from a French base meaning "to hang, suspend."

Those in the first column it is simplest to call compound prepositions. In the second column we seem to have either a compound preposition or two successive prepositional phrases (when an object is added after the last word). One argument for calling them compound prepositions is that we normally do not place modifiers before the noun following the first preposition, as we can do with ordinary prepositional phrases. For example, in *on account of* the word *account* is not modified. Thus we shall refer to the items in both columns above as “compound prepositions.”

### Exercise 13-7

Underline the compound prepositions.

1. We arrived ahead of time.
2. The game was called off on account of rain.
3. The oldest daughter is up at the camp.
4. Contrary to our expectations, the movie was a delightful spoof.
5. We came by way of Brookline.
6. I want to thank you on behalf of these refugees.
7. They served rice instead of potatoes.
8. They served rice in lieu of potatoes.
9. In spite of her protestations, Harriet was persuaded to join the guild.
10. In case of accident, call your insurance agent.

Finally, here is a little afterthought on prepositions. The name *preposition* implies that this structure word occupies a *pre-* position, that is, one before its object. Such is usually the case. But as you might have realized from some of the examples in exercise 13-4, you can also find it at the end of a few structures:

1. Relative clause: The job (that) he worked *at*.
2. Passive: The lock had been tampered *with*.
3. Infinitive: Clay is fun to play *with*.
4. Exclamation: What a hedge of thorns we stumbled *into*!
5. QW question: Which room did you find it *in*?
6. Set expression: The world *over*,  
your objection *notwithstanding*.

So you can forget the schoolroom superstition that a preposition is an improper word to end a sentence with. In some cases, such as “Where are you from?”, any other word order would sound silly or artificial. In other cases you may have a stylistic choice. For instance, “The doctor with whom I was conferring” is formal, whereas “The doctor I was conferring with” is informal. Both are standard acceptable English. We began this chapter with Churchill’s response to being corrected for ending a sentence with a preposition. His response, though initially appearing to rearrange prepositions, actually involves a different kind of structure, which we will learn about in a later chapter.



### C. Determiners

A determiner is a word that patterns with a noun. It precedes the noun and serves as a signal that a noun is soon to follow.

**Example:** *The* gymnasium

If the noun is preceded by adjectives and nouns, the determiner precedes these modifiers.

**Examples:** *The* new gymnasium  
*The* brick gymnasium  
*The* new brick gymnasium

The absence of a determiner to signal a following noun will sometimes produce ambiguity. Here is a case from a newspaper headline:

Union demands increase.

We do not know how to interpret *increase* because a signal is absent. A *will* would show that it is a verb:

Union demands will increase.

A determiner would indicate that it is a noun.

Union demands *an* increase.

The following is a partial list of determiners:

Articles	Prenominal		Possessive Proper Names
	Possessive Pronouns	Demonstratives	
a/an	my	this	John's (or any
the	your	that	• possessive
	his	these	• of name)
	her	those	•
	its		
	our		
	their		

Five of the above determiners—his, this, that, these, those—as well as the whole set of possessive proper names, overlap with a separate list of words that may be used in place of a noun—that is, as noun substitutes.

**Examples:** *That* will be enough.

I prefer *Elizabeth's*.

What can one do with old cars like *these*?

I can't tell Jim's tennis shoes from *his*.

#### Exercise 13-8

In the blanks write a D (determiner) or NS (noun substitute) to show the category of the italicized word.

1. Do you like *my* new hat? \_\_\_\_\_
2. Do you like *this*? \_\_\_\_\_
3. Should you have *a* match? \_\_\_\_\_
4. *These* guys are my new teammates. \_\_\_\_\_
5. *These* are my new teammates. \_\_\_\_\_
6. We did not disturb *George's* room. \_\_\_\_\_
7. *Its* roots grew under the pavement. \_\_\_\_\_
8. Have you seen *our* formals? \_\_\_\_\_
9. *This* cold is invigorating. \_\_\_\_\_
10. *Smith's* house is for sale. \_\_\_\_\_
11. *His* is the best plan. \_\_\_\_\_
12. Where are *the* red phlox you planted? \_\_\_\_\_
13. *That* deep pool is a good place for trout. \_\_\_\_\_
14. Jack has *an* interest in grinding rocks. \_\_\_\_\_
15. *Your* slip is showing. \_\_\_\_\_
16. *Sally's* was the winner. \_\_\_\_\_

### Exercise 13-9

Each of these newspaper headlines is ambiguous, that is, can be read in two ways. Add a determiner to each in such a way that a noun will be identified and the meaning reduced to a single one.

1. Police raid gathering \_\_\_\_\_
2. Complete faculty at State \_\_\_\_\_
3. Rule book not obscene \_\_\_\_\_
4. Clean model house \_\_\_\_\_
5. Girl shows top baby beef<sup>2</sup> \_\_\_\_\_

## D. Auxiliaries

Auxiliaries are closely associated with the verb and are of three kinds. The **first** kind is called modal auxiliaries. There are ten modal auxiliaries:

can	could
may	might
shall	should
will	would
must	
ought (to) <sup>3</sup>	

<sup>2</sup>*Baby beef* means calves, which farm boys and girls exhibit at fairs.

<sup>3</sup>This account omits the uses of *dare* and *need* as auxiliaries. You might like to investigate their uses in questions and negative sentences.



The modal auxiliaries are bound together as a group by two characteristics of form: (1) The present-tense form does not take an -s in the third person singular; for example, we say "She may," not "She may<sub>s</sub>." (2) They do not have participle forms, present or past.

These modal auxiliaries precede verb stems and give them special shades of meaning, such as futurity, volition, possibility, probability, permission, and necessity. They are sometimes called verb markers because they signal that a verb is about to follow. The majority of the modals are said to have tense. In the first four pairs—*can, could*; *may, might*; *shall, should*; *will, would*—the second member is the past tense of the first member. This is apparent in indirect discourse:

I think I *can* help you.

I thought I *could* help you.

*Must* and *ought (to)* do not have parallel forms, like the others. To express the past tense of *must*, in the sense of necessity, one says *had to*, e.g.,

This morning I *must* trim the hedge.

Yesterday I *had to* trim the hedge.

And for the past tense of *ought (to)*, one uses *ought (to)/should* plus *have* plus a past participle, e.g.,

You *ought to* see those strawberries.

You *ought to have/should have* seen those strawberries.

The negatives of *must* and *ought to* are not regular. If *must* means "is necessary," then its negative means "is not necessary." This negative meaning is expressed by *do not have to* or *need not*, and not by *must not*, which is a forbiddance of the action of the following verb. Thus:

**Affirm.:** You must return tomorrow.

**Neg.:** You don't have to return tomorrow.

or

You need not return tomorrow.

but not

You must not return tomorrow.

The negative of *ought to* is expressed by *ought not to* or *hadn't ought to* (Northern form) or *should not*. Thus:

**Affirm.:** You ought to carry that log away.

**Neg.:** You ought not to carry that log away.

or

You hadn't ought to carry that log away.

or

You shouldn't carry that log away.

The form *hadn't ought to* is used in speech only, not in writing, and of the three, *shouldn't* is perhaps the most commonly employed.

Often the ideas that modal auxiliaries express do not include an element of time. Here are all ten expressing delicate nuances of meaning exclusive of time, save that a notion of futurity is implicit in all of them.

May I help you?	You ought to be careful.
Might I help you?	Will you come again?
Can I help you?	Would you come again?
Could I help you?	Shall I return it?
You must be careful.	Should I return it?

On the whole the meanings expressed are many and subtly shaded, and you are lucky that, as a native speaker, you already have a command of them.

The **second** kind of auxiliary is the two primary auxiliaries, *have* and *be*. Their forms are

Stem	have	be
Present tense	has/have	am/is/are
Present participle	having	being
Past tense	had	was/were
Past participle	had	been

When immediately preceding a main verb, *have* is followed by a past participle, as in "He has *eaten*," and *be* is followed by either a past participle, as in "The white cat was *found*," or a present participle, as in "They are *studying*."

When auxiliaries are employed in groups of two or three, an obligatory sequence is followed: modal + *have* + *be*.

<b>Examples:</b>	<i>modal</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>be</i>	{-ING vb}/{-D pp}
I	might	have	been	fishing/shot
George	may		be	reading/startled
They		had	been	sleeping/seen
She	must	have		quit

In main-verb sequences only one modal auxiliary is used. With *have* only one form is used in main-verb sequences. But *be* may be doubled, as in "He was *being* punished."

Up to this point we have noted two important sets of auxiliaries: (1) the various modals and (2) the primary auxiliaries *have* and *be* with their various forms. Before proceeding to the third set of auxiliaries it will be helpful to consider the role of the first two sets of auxiliaries in the formation of questions or negative statements. Even though you might think that you don't know much about auxiliaries in English, if you are a native speaker of the language, you know more than you realize, though you don't know it consciously. Indeed, to form questions or to negate statements we are all quite expert at identifying auxiliaries in a sequence. We'll consider this matter in more detail below.



1. When we form questions, we locate the first auxiliary in the string of words that would occur together if the utterance were a statement, and we move it to the front of the utterance, placing it in front of the subject. Of course, if there is only one auxiliary, then it serves as the "first" one. In other words, we invert the subject and first auxiliary. Note also that with regard to this rule as well as the next two we will be listing, the forms of *be*, whether or not they are auxiliaries, are handled as such.<sup>4</sup>

**Examples:** "The dog should be licensed" becomes "Should the dog be licensed?"

"They are happy" becomes "Are they happy?"

"Jim is teaching history" becomes "Is Jim teaching history?"<sup>5</sup>

2. Most negative statements are formed through the placement of the word *not* or its contracted form after the first auxiliary in a sentence.

**Examples:** "The dog should be licensed" becomes "The dog shouldn't be licensed."

"They are happy" becomes "They aren't happy."

"Jim is teaching history" becomes "Jim isn't teaching history."

3. Tag questions, which are short questions tacked onto statements, locate the first auxiliary of an utterance and repeat it in the subsequent tag. They also utilize a pronoun form that corresponds to the subject of the sentence. Typically speaking, if the utterance is positive, the tag will be negative and vice versa.

**Examples:** The dog should be licensed, shouldn't it?

The dog shouldn't be licensed, should it?

They are happy, aren't they?

They aren't happy, are they?

Jim is teaching history, isn't he?

Jim isn't teaching history, is he?

The **third** kind of auxiliary is the periphrastic auxiliary *do*. The auxiliary *do* is a "dummy" form that has a variety of uses. In the discussion above regarding the formation of questions, tag questions, and negative statements, we mentioned that speakers have to locate the first auxiliary. It may have occurred to you, however, that many statements do not even contain an auxiliary (or even a nonauxiliary form of *be*). In such cases we insert an appropriate form of the periphrastic *do*, which not only occupies a slot that would have otherwise been filled by an auxiliary if there were one in the utterance, but also carries the verb tense. Note the examples below:

<sup>4</sup>There are some differences between British and American English about the extent to which a few auxiliaries such as *might*, *must*, or *ought* can be moved forward in questions.

<sup>5</sup>The question examples here involve questions that require "yes" or "no" answers. Wh- questions that begin with words such as *who*, *what*, *why* also invert the first auxiliary and the subject. Thus we could ask, "What is Jim teaching?" However, if the wh- word is asking about the subject of the sentence, no inversion takes place (e.g., "Who is teaching history?").

- Questions** "Sally studies chemistry" becomes "Does Sally study chemistry?"  
 "Sally studied chemistry" becomes "Did Sally study chemistry?"
- Negatives** "Sally studies chemistry" becomes "Sally doesn't study chemistry."  
 "Sally studied chemistry" becomes "Sally didn't study chemistry."
- Tag Questions** "Sally studies chemistry, doesn't she?"  
 "Sally doesn't study chemistry, does she?"  
 "Sally studied chemistry, didn't she?"  
 "Sally didn't study chemistry, did she?"

In addition to what has already been described, the auxiliary *do* may be used in declarative affirmative sentences where it provides emphasis: "The teacher claimed that John never studied. But he *did* study." The auxiliary *do* may also be used in sentences beginning with a negative adverbial such as *seldom*, *never*, and *not only*, where it is inverted with the subject and carries the verb tense.

**Examples:** Never *did* I dream of such a thing.  
 Not only *does* he dream; he has nightmares.

Before proceeding on to some exercises that involve identifying auxiliaries, we caution you to remember that some occurrences of the previously listed words do not constitute the use of an auxiliary. For example, the word *did* is an auxiliary in the sentence "He did not come," but it is a main verb in the sentence "He did the dishes." And the word *have* is an auxiliary in front of a past participle as in "We have eaten," but it is a main verb in a sentence such as "We have a dog."

### Exercise 13-10

Give the number of auxiliaries, from 0 through 3, in each sentence or question.

1. I shall be waiting for you. \_\_\_\_\_
2. You ought to have done better. \_\_\_\_\_
3. Helen should have been working. \_\_\_\_\_
4. Mr. Owens has your car. \_\_\_\_\_
5. The elephant has been injured. \_\_\_\_\_
6. Do you bring the refreshments? \_\_\_\_\_

### Exercise 13-11

Label the italicized auxiliaries as MA (modal auxiliary), PA (primary auxiliary), or PAD (periphrastic auxiliary *do*).

1. Joyce was *being* attacked by the critics. \_\_\_\_\_
2. *Could* you hold this turkey for me? \_\_\_\_\_
3. *Did* he find the right address? \_\_\_\_\_
4. The butler *may* have committed the crime. \_\_\_\_\_
5. The net *was* lying in a heap. \_\_\_\_\_



**Exercise 13-12**

A verb may be preceded by one, two, or three auxiliaries. Underline the auxiliaries. Then write above each one MA (for modal auxiliary), *have*, or *be*. Which sequence, if any, differs from that given on page 189?

1. Those words must be justified.
2. She ought to have written her mother.
3. They could be coming by plane.
4. The car could have been wrecked by that.
5. You might have mowed it shorter.

The behavior and patterning of auxiliaries differ from those of verbs in several respects. A couple of these differences could be inferred from the previous discussion about the periphrastic auxiliary *do*, but we will still summarize them here.

1. A sentence with a verb can begin a conversation and be satisfactorily understood by the listener. Upon meeting a friend you might say, "I worked like a dog yesterday," and receive a nod of comprehension and sympathy. But if you used only a modal auxiliary in such an introductory sentence as, "I could yesterday," your friend might look at you with concern and reply, "Could what?"

The point here is that an auxiliary is not used as a full verb. It may be used, however, as a substitute verb for a verb already mentioned, as in

He ate an orange and so *did* I.

I can drive and so *can* he.

Or it may be used in reference to a previously stated verb. For example, in reply to the question, "Are you going to the play?" you might say, "Yes, I am."

2. The negative of a verb phrase containing an auxiliary or auxiliaries is made by putting *not* after the first auxiliary in a sequence (e.g., "He has not been attending"). This contrasts with the negative of a verb phrase containing only a verb. This latter case, as we have seen, requires a form of *do* plus *not* preceding the verb unless the main verb is a form of *be* (e.g., "He doesn't attend").
3. To make a question with an auxiliary, the subject and the first auxiliary in a sequence are reversed (e.g., "She can be elected" becomes "Can she be elected?"). In contrast, with a verb, unless the verb is a form of *be*, we formulate a question by following the pattern *do* {*do*} + subject + verb stem (e.g., "They studied the constitution" becomes "Did they study the constitution?").

**Exercise 13-13**

Rewrite each sentence in two ways—as a negative and as a question. Then by using the criteria in paragraphs 2 and 3 immediately preceding this exercise, decide

whether the italicized word is an auxiliary or a verb. Indicate your decision by writing Aux or V in the blank at the right.

**Example:** She *began* working.

Neg. *She did not begin working.*

Q. *Did she begin working?* V

1. He *was* eating.

Neg. \_\_\_\_\_

Q. \_\_\_\_\_

2. He *quit* eating.

Neg. \_\_\_\_\_

Q. \_\_\_\_\_

3. The worker *was* killed.

Neg. \_\_\_\_\_

Q. \_\_\_\_\_

4. The worker *has* gone.

Neg. \_\_\_\_\_

Q. \_\_\_\_\_

5. We *should* hurry.

Neg. \_\_\_\_\_

Q. \_\_\_\_\_

6. We *can* hurry.

Neg. \_\_\_\_\_

Q. \_\_\_\_\_

7. They *are* going.

Neg. \_\_\_\_\_

Q. \_\_\_\_\_

8. They *kept* going.

Neg. \_\_\_\_\_

Q. \_\_\_\_\_

9. He *could* have been sleeping.

Neg. \_\_\_\_\_

Q. \_\_\_\_\_

10. He *will* play.

Neg. \_\_\_\_\_

Q. \_\_\_\_\_

## E. Pronouns: Personal, Interrogative, Relative

### Personal Pronouns

The set of personal pronouns is a closed set. And because it is also a small set, it is relatively easy to familiarize ourselves with its members.

Singular				
	Subject	Object	Prenominal Possessive	Substitutional Possessive
1st	I	me	my	mine
2nd	you	you	your	yours
3rd	M he	him	his	his
	F she	her	her	hers
	N it	it	its	its



	Plural			
1st	we	us	our	ours
2nd	you	you	your	yours
3rd	they	them	their	theirs
Interr. } Relative }	who	whom	whose	whose

Let us look at them through the framework terms.

1. **Number.** You are already acquainted with the terms *singular* and *plural*, with their meanings of "one" and "more than one." One difference from noun number here is that *we* does not mean more than one *I* but *I* and somebody else. The singular and plural have the same *you* forms. Earlier in our history the singular forms were *thou, thee, thy, thine*. These were in everyday use by the English who settled our country in the early 1600s, and you meet them in Shakespeare's plays and the King James Bible, both of the same period. They survive today in liturgical or other religiously directed uses of language.
2. **Function Terms.** One dimension of meaning, which we will be giving greater attention to later in the text, involves the function, that is, the grammatical role of particular words in a sentence. In the case of pronouns in English, these functions are signaled by the form of the pronouns. For example, as native speakers we know to say "They are coming," not "Them are coming." Our grammatical knowledge includes the fact that *they* and not *them* is a subject form. As native speakers we know this, even if we don't know the formal grammatical terminology to describe what we know. As you look at the columns in the personal pronoun paradigm you will see four function-related headings: subject, object, prenominal possessive, and substitutional possessive.
  - a. The pronouns in the subject column are typically those used in the functions of *subject* of the verb (that which performs the action of the verb, is described, is identified, or about which an assertion is made). The subject form is also used for a *subjective complement* (that which follows *be* or a verb like *become* and identifies the subject).

**Examples:** *They* are going to the ballet.  
It was *she* who missed the test.

- b. The pronouns in the *object* column are those that function mainly as objects of the verb and of the preposition. As objects of the verb they may be either a *direct object*, which undergoes the action of the verb, or an *indirect object*, which is the person or thing to or for whom an action is performed.

**Examples:** We saw *her* in the car.  
I gave *her* the letter yesterday.  
A package came from *him*.

- c. The prenominal possessives occur before nouns.

**Example:** With *my* brains and *your* industry we could make a fortune.

- d. The substitutional possessives occur as substitutes for nouns (noun phrases). The form *its* is rarely used.

**Examples:** That lawn mower is *ours* (= our lawn mower).  
*Yours* (= your term paper) was the best.

### 3. Person

- a. The first person in the singular denotes the speaker. In the plural it denotes the speaker plus anybody else, one or more.
  - b. The second person denotes the person or persons spoken to.
  - c. The third person denotes those other than the speaker and other than those spoken to.
4. **Gender Reference.** Only three of the horizontal rows of pronouns have gender reference—the *he*, *she*, and *it* rows. The *it* can refer to certain creatures of either gender—*infant*, *dog*, *pig*—and to genderless things—*story*, *stone*, *justice*.

## Interrogative Pronouns

As the first word in a question, the subject form *who* is normally used in cultivated speech, regardless of its function.

**Examples:** *Who* borrowed my tie? (subject of verb)  
*Who* did you take to the theater? (object of verb)  
*Who* are you referring to? (object of preposition)

In the last two examples *whom* is occasionally used by the ultrafastidious, but it sounds stiff and bookish. The object form *whom* is used directly after prepositions, as in "To whom?" and "With whom did you go?" But in easy conversational style the latter is likely to be "Who did you go with?"

*Whose* book is this? (prenominal possessive)  
*Whose* is this book? (substitutional possessive)

Other interrogative pronouns include *what* and *which*.

## Relative Pronouns

Traditionalists have prescribed the relative pronoun *who* as a subject form and *whom* as object of the verb and object of the preposition. As with the interrogative uses, the distinction between the relative pronouns *who* and *whom* is largely ignored in favor of employing *who* for both subject and object uses, even in Standard English. But understanding the traditional distinction is still important because some situations remain, even if relatively rare, when educated individuals are expected to know and maintain the distinction. If you are trying to maintain a distinction between the two relative pronouns *who* and *whom*, remember that the relative clauses they introduce are embedded sentences in which *who* and *whom* have their own function:



Tom is the boy *who* came = Tom is the boy. *The boy* came. (subject of verb)

Tom is the boy *whom* I saw = Tom is the boy. I saw *the boy*. (object of verb)

The woman *who* bought the business is wealthy = The woman is wealthy. *The woman* bought the business. (subject of verb)

The woman *whom* I admired bought the business = The woman bought the business. I admired *the woman*. (object of verb)

The woman *whom* I voted for won by a close margin = The woman won by a close margin. I voted for *the woman*. (object of preposition)

With this information in mind, now look at the next examples:

The teacher *whose* book I borrowed had an extra copy. (possessive relative)

We had a beautiful maple *whose* leaves turned scarlet in September. (This use of *whose* with nonhuman reference is not uncommon in reputable English.)

As you doubtless noticed from the examples above, *who* and *whom* (interrogative and relative) have human reference, whereas *whose* (interrogative) has human and *whose* (relative) both human and nonhuman reference.

There are two more relative pronouns, *which* and *that*.

*Which* has nonhuman reference and in its uses parallels those of *who* and *whom*.

**Examples:** The tree *which* fell was a large oak. (subject of verb)

The tree *which* I prefer is an oak. (object of verb)

The tree *which* we sat under was an oak. (object of preposition)

The tree under *which* we sat was an oak. (object of preposition)

*That* has both human and nonhuman reference. Its uses parallel those of *which*, but it does not directly follow a preposition.<sup>6</sup>

**Examples:** The flavor *that* pleases me most is chocolate. (subject of verb)

The teacher *that* I like best is Mrs. Lopez. (object of verb)

The author *that* I am writing about is Camus. (object of preposition)

But

\*The author about *that* I am writing is Camus. (ungrammatical)

One more observation about relative pronouns is relevant: When a relative pronoun functions as an object of the verb or object of the preposition, it may be omitted.

**Examples:** The pet [*which, that*] he wanted to buy was a French poodle.

The carpenter [*whom*] we hired was Mr. Cutter.

The doctor [*whom*] I am waiting for is Dr. Harris.

#### Exercise: 13-14

Assume you are writing a term paper in a formal style. Fill in the blanks with the relative *who* or *whom*.

<sup>6</sup>A further constraint on the relative pronoun *that* is that it must introduce restrictive clauses. These will be explained in chapter 17.

1. The candidate \_\_\_\_\_ the convention chose had always voted for civil rights legislation.
2. She interviewed a well-known scientist with \_\_\_\_\_ she had previously corresponded.
3. The doctor \_\_\_\_\_ developed the vaccine warned against possible side effects.
4. The psychiatrist with \_\_\_\_\_ Carlson conferred was optimistic about the case.
5. All the persons \_\_\_\_\_ they arrested protested their innocence.

**Exercise 13-15**

Fill in the blanks with *who* or *which*. After the sentence indicate whether the reference is Hum (human) or Nhum (nonhuman).

1. That's the girl \_\_\_\_\_ won all the honors. \_\_\_\_\_
2. The council listened to the citizens \_\_\_\_\_ presented the petition. \_\_\_\_\_
3. It was the spotted kitten \_\_\_\_\_ ran under the porch. \_\_\_\_\_
4. We spoke about the rising crime rate \_\_\_\_\_ is making life dangerous in cities. \_\_\_\_\_
5. The bread \_\_\_\_\_ you bought is stale. \_\_\_\_\_

**Exercise 13-16**

Consider the blank within each sentence below. In the blank after each sentence indicate whether that sentence would use a prenominal possessive (PP) or a substitutional possessive (SbP).

1. This is \_\_\_\_\_ seat. \_\_\_\_\_
2. This seat is \_\_\_\_\_. \_\_\_\_\_
3. Have you seen \_\_\_\_\_ canary? \_\_\_\_\_
4. I compared it to \_\_\_\_\_. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_ is a poor bathing suit. \_\_\_\_\_
6. I'd prefer one like \_\_\_\_\_. \_\_\_\_\_
7. Where is \_\_\_\_\_ friend today? \_\_\_\_\_
8. \_\_\_\_\_ bucket is leaking. \_\_\_\_\_
9. He found it with \_\_\_\_\_. \_\_\_\_\_
10. She bought \_\_\_\_\_ sister a compact. \_\_\_\_\_

**Some Observations and Applications**

This chapter has introduced you to the structure classes. These classes have relatively few members, but they are very important in what they signal about how the structure of a sentence is to be interpreted. In abbreviated speech some structure-class words such as determiners can sometimes be omitted, as frequently occurs in



newspaper headlines. This is because determiners are function rather than content words and thus do not carry a heavy semantic load. But because they carry important information about how the structure of an utterance should be interpreted, omitting them poses some risk. Exercise 13-9 illustrated how the absence of a determiner in a headline can lead to ambiguity. If you do specialized writing that requires you to omit function words such as determiners, your linguistic training should prompt you to proofread that writing with particular care.

Another structure-class paradigm related to careful editing is the pronoun paradigm. In most cases, if you are a native speaker of English, your ear will tell you which pronoun forms are correct to use in a given context. But in some contexts you may need to rely on linguistic analysis to help you choose an appropriate form. We have already observed this in relation to the relative pronoun forms *who* and *whom*. And consider also the difficulty that can occur in selecting an appropriate pronoun in a compound noun phrase such as "The decision was not clear to Nancy and \_\_\_\_\_." In a sentence such as this, you may not know whether to use *me* or *I*. Of course you might just try out your ear by omitting the first part of the compound and get "The decision was not clear to \_\_\_\_\_." Your ear would tell you that *me* works there. But it is nice to also verify this with a little grammatical knowledge just to be sure. You could reason that the pronoun must be the object of the preposition because the word *to* is a preposition. The object form is *me* and not *I*, so the word choice should be *me*.

Another important application of grammatical study is in the teaching of a language to others. Being a native speaker of a language is not enough for someone to be qualified to teach that language to others. The teacher must be consciously aware of the rules and patterns that govern the language or else he or she will be unable to explain them to others. Let us consider one illustration of some language rules that you studied in this chapter but would otherwise not have consciously known. In this chapter you have seen that auxiliaries are moved around and inverted with the subject to form questions and followed by the word *not* to form negative utterances. These uses and movements of auxiliaries are performed quite naturally by native speakers but can present a challenge to nonnative speakers. Those who teach English as a second language must be consciously aware of how the language behaves because they must be able to explain it to their nonnative-speaking students.

This chapter has given attention to the morphology of the structure classes. But some attention should also be given to some of their pragmatic behavior, which often escapes the attention of people who typically expect the importance of structure classes to reside exclusively in structural signals. For an illustration of the pragmatic importance of one structure class, let's look at the articles. The definite article *the* is not interchangeable with the indefinite articles *a* and *an*. It is to be used with nouns that have already been specified in the discourse or are known to the listener (e.g., "I saw the president"). The articles *a* and *an* are used with nouns that have not been specified or are not already known ("I saw a dog"). These facts about articles are widely known, but research has also shown that the seemingly insignificant difference between the use of the definite and indefinite article can actually make a signifi-

cant difference in legal and judicial settings that involve eyewitness reports. Elizabeth Loftus, reporting on empirical research, explains that when a definite article is used in questions directed at an eyewitness (her example is "Did you see the broken headlight?"), it can presuppose the existence of something in a way that an indefinite article wouldn't ("Did you see a broken headlight?") and thus alter the way that some eyewitnesses report what they have seen. Such a question can even alter the subsequent memory of a witness about an event.<sup>7</sup> Such information about the psycholinguistic effect of a structure class should be of interest to people working in law and law enforcement.

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<sup>7</sup>"Language and Memories in the Judicial System" by Elizabeth F. Loftus in *Language Use and the Uses of Language*, eds. Roger W. Shuy and Anna Shukal. Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 1980, pp. 257-68.



**Exercise 8-1**

- |      |      |      |       |       |       |       |
|------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. 1 | 4. 2 | 7. 2 | 10. 1 | 13. 2 | 16. 2 | 19. 2 |
| 2. 2 | 5. 1 | 8. 1 | 11. 2 | 14. 2 | 17. 1 | 20. 1 |
| 3. 1 | 6. 1 | 9. 2 | 12. 1 | 15. 1 | 18. 2 |       |

**Exercise 8-2**

- |            |              |
|------------|--------------|
| 1. before  | 6. marked by |
| 2. again   | 7. most      |
| 3. like    | 8. not       |
| 4. one who | 9. not       |
| 5. not     | 10. bad      |

**Exercise 8-3**

- |                |               |
|----------------|---------------|
| 1. speaker     | 6. biomass    |
| 2. kingdom     | 7. inter vene |
| 3. petrodollar | 8. remake     |
| 4. idolize     | 9. dreamed    |
| 5. selective   | 10. undo      |

**Exercise 8-4**

- |            |            |             |
|------------|------------|-------------|
| 1. womanly | 3. failure | 5. infamous |
| 2. endear  | 4. famous  | 6. lighten  |

- |                      |                      |                 |
|----------------------|----------------------|-----------------|
| 7. enlighten         | 10. <i>Bostonian</i> | 13. subway      |
| 8. <i>friendship</i> | 11. unlikely         | 14. falsify     |
| 9. befriend          | 12. prewar           | 15. unenlivened |

**Exercise 8-5**

- |                 |            |           |
|-----------------|------------|-----------|
| 1. hear         | 5. writing | 9. hand   |
| 2. kill         | 6. body    | 10. throw |
| 3. mouth, speak | 7. one     |           |
| 4. water        | 8. hang    |           |

**Exercise 8-6 (Your examples may vary.)**

- |                  |              |              |          |
|------------------|--------------|--------------|----------|
| 1. earth writing | geology      | 9. breathe   | respire  |
|                  | oceanography | 10. gnaw     | erode    |
| 2. life study    | biochemistry | 11. carry    | report   |
|                  | mythology    | 12. break    | erupt    |
| 3. book lover    | bibliography | 13. year     | annuity  |
|                  | Francophile  | 14. flesh    | carnage  |
| 4. come          | convene      | 15. marriage | polygamy |
| 5. seize         | apprehend    |              |          |
| 6. run           | current      |              |          |
| 7. look          | spectacles   |              |          |
| 8. place, put    | depose       |              |          |

**Optional Exercise 8-7**

- |                  |                          |
|------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. day's eye     | 6. the die (sg. of dice) |
| 2. little mouse  | 7. pebble                |
| 3. eyebrow       | 8. kick                  |
| 4. wind eye      | 9. goad                  |
| 5. little donkey | 10. pond                 |

**Exercise 8-8 (Your examples may vary.)**

- |                       |               |
|-----------------------|---------------|
| 1. against            | antimissile   |
| 2. around             | circumference |
| 3. with               | cocurricular  |
|                       | collide       |
|                       | comply        |
|                       | convoke       |
|                       | correlate     |
| 4. against            | contravene    |
| 5. do the opposite of | deactivate    |
| 6. not                | dishonest     |
| 7. not                | incompetent   |



- |                        |               |
|------------------------|---------------|
|                        | impossible    |
|                        | illegal       |
|                        | irreplaceable |
| 8. in, on              | inscribe      |
|                        | impale        |
| 9. between             | intercede     |
| 10. within             | intravenous   |
| 11. against, opposite  | obstacle      |
|                        | oppress       |
| 12. before             | preconceive   |
| 13. after              | postmortem    |
| 14. forward            | progress      |
| 15. backward           | retrogress    |
| 16. half               | semisoft      |
| 17. under              | substandard   |
| 18. over               | superhuman    |
| 19. not                | unattractive  |
| 20. do the opposite of | unfold        |

#### Exercise 8-9

- |      |       |
|------|-------|
| 1. 2 | 6. 3  |
| 2. 3 | 7. 2  |
| 3. 2 | 8. 2  |
| 4. 3 | 9. 2  |
| 5. 2 | 10. 3 |

#### Exercise 8-10

- |                   |                    |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. livened        | 6. workability     |
| 2. terminating    | 7. innermost       |
| 3. moralizers     | 8. marriageability |
| 4. provincialisms | 9. gangsterdom     |
| 5. gruesomely     | 10. affectionately |

#### Exercise 8-11

- |               |                               |
|---------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. {-D pt}    | past tense                    |
| 2. {-s pl}    | noun plural                   |
| 3. {-s 3d}    | present third-person singular |
| 4. {-s sg ps} | noun singular possessive      |
| 5. {-s pl ps} | noun plural possessive        |
| 6. {-ING vb}  | present participle            |
| 7. {-ER cp}   | comparative                   |
| 8. {-D pt}    | past tense                    |
| 9. {-EST sp}  | superlative                   |

- |               |                               |
|---------------|-------------------------------|
| 10. {-D pp}   | past participle               |
| 11. {-D pt}   | past tense                    |
| 12. {-D pt}   | past tense                    |
| 13. {-ING vb} | present participle            |
| 14. {-s pl}   | noun plural                   |
| 15. {-s 3d}   | present third-person singular |

**Exercise 8-12**

- |               |               |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1. happiness  | 7. supremacy  |
| 2. friendship | supremeness   |
| 3. boyhood    | 8. truism     |
| 4. composure  | trueness      |
| 5. shrinkage  | truth         |
| 6. activism   | 9. paganism   |
| activeness    | 10. discovery |
| activation    |               |
| activity      |               |

**Exercise 8-13**

- |           |    |            |              |
|-----------|----|------------|--------------|
| 1. V (N)  | N  | 14. N (V)  | Aj           |
| 2. V (N)  | Aj | 15. N (V)  | N            |
| 3. V      | N  | 16. N (Aj) | N            |
| 4. V      | N  | 17. N      | Aj (N or Av) |
| 5. N (Aj) | V  | 18. V      | Aj           |
| 6. Aj     | V  | 19. V      | Aj           |
| 7. Aj     | Av | 20. V      | Aj           |
| 8. V (N)  | Aj | 21. N      | Aj (N)       |
| 9. N (V)  | N  | 22. N (V)  | Aj           |
| 10. V (N) | N  | 23. Aj     | V            |
| 11. V     | N  | 24. Aj     | N            |
| 12. N     | Aj | 25. V      | N            |
| 13. N (V) | N  |            |              |

**Exercise 8-14 (Other words are possible.)**

1. reasonableness
2. formality
3. organization
4. purification
5. realistic

**Exercise 8-15 (Other words are possible.)**

- |               |                |
|---------------|----------------|
| 1. kindnesses | 3. quarterlies |
| 2. beautified | 4. popularized |



- |              |               |
|--------------|---------------|
| 5. depths    | 8. orientated |
| 6. pressures | 9. friendlier |
| 7. arrivals  | 10. funniest  |

No words can be formed by adding another inflectional suffix to the above words.

**Exercise 8-16**

You may have more than those given below.

1. sinful, sinfulness, sinless, sinlessness, sinner
2. kindly, kindness, kindless, kindness, unkind, unkindly, unkindliness, unkindness
3. alive, aliveness, lively, liveliness, livelihood, liven, enliven, unenliven, unlively, unliveliness
4. transportable, transportability, transporter, transportation, transportational
5. audibility, auditory, auditive, audible, audio, audit, auditor, auditorium, audience, audition, audiophile

**Exercise 8-17**

1. {-ER cp}
2. {-ER rp}
3. {-ER n}
4. {-ER cp}
5. {-ER rp}

**Exercise 8-18**

- |          |          |           |
|----------|----------|-----------|
| 1. Aj-al | 6. V-al  | 11. Aj-al |
| 2. N-al  | 7. V-al  | 12. Aj-al |
| 3. V-al  | 8. Aj-al | 13. V-al  |
| 4. Aj-al | 9. V-al  | 14. Aj-al |
| 5. N-al  | 10. N-al | 15. Aj-al |

**Exercise 8-19**

- |          |           |
|----------|-----------|
| 1. V-al  | 6. V-al   |
| 2. N-al  | 7. V-al   |
| 3. Aj-al | 8. Aj-al  |
| 4. V-al  | 9. Aj-al  |
| 5. V-al  | 10. Aj-al |

**Exercise 8-20**

1. a. He had a completed table.  
b. He had a polished table.
2. a. The animal was seen.  
b. The animal had spots.

**Exercise 8-21**

- |      |      |       |
|------|------|-------|
| 1. 1 | 5. 2 | 9. 2  |
| 2. 2 | 6. 2 | 10. 2 |
| 3. 2 | 7. 1 |       |
| 4. 1 | 8. 2 |       |

**Exercise 8-22**

- |       |        |        |         |
|-------|--------|--------|---------|
| 1. IS | 6. DS  | 11. DS | 16. Amb |
| 2. DS | 7. Amb | 12. DS | 17. Amb |
| 3. DS | 8. DS  | 13. DS | 18. DS  |
| 4. IS | 9. DS  | 14. DS | 19. DS  |
| 5. IS | 10. DS | 15. IS | 20. DS  |

**Exercise 8-23**

- |                 |                       |
|-----------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Pauline      | 9. Caroline, Carolina |
| 2. chanteuse    | 10. empress           |
| 3. protégée     | 11. laundress         |
| 4. czarina      | 12. executrix         |
| 5. songstress   | 13. proprietress      |
| 6. majorette    | 14. waitress          |
| 7. heiress      | 15. tragedienne       |
| 8. equestrienne |                       |

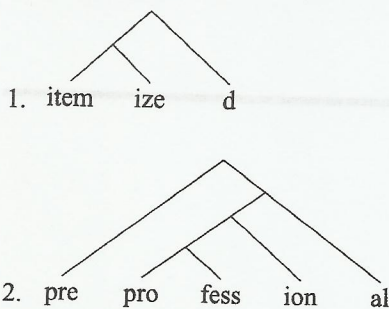
**Exercise 8-24**

- |                        |            |               |
|------------------------|------------|---------------|
| 1. Bobby               | 6. lambkin | 11. hatchling |
| 2. gosling             | 7. packet  | 12. droplet   |
| 3. statuette           | 8. puppy   | 13. laddie    |
| 4. piglet or piggy     | 9. eaglet  | 14. diskette  |
| 5. dearie (or darling) | 10. Annie  | 15. cigarette |

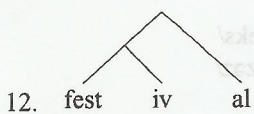
**Exercise 8-25**

*Unlawful* is wrongly cut because the first cut leaves *unlaw*, which is not a free form.

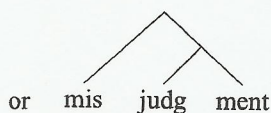
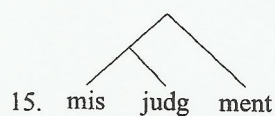
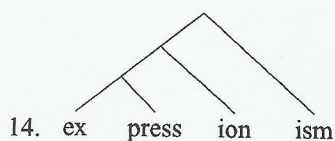
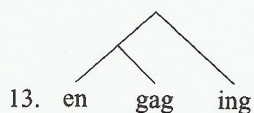
**Exercise 8-26**







414 Answers to Exercises



Exercise 8-27

Morpheme	Free allomorph	Bound allomorph
1. {strong}	/straŋ/ or /strɔŋ/	/streŋ-/
2. {chaste}	/čest/	/čæst-/
3. {courage}	/kərəʃ/	/kəreʃ-/
4. {Bible}	/baybəl/	/bɪbl-/
5. {wife}	/wayf/	/wayv-/

Exercise 8-28

The two forms *a/an* have the same meaning and are in complementary distribution, *a* occurring before consonant sounds and *an* before vowel sounds.

Exercise 8-29

- |   |                                   |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| 1. {wide} = /wayd/ ~ /wɪd-/             | 6. {divine} = /dəvayn/ ~ /dəvɪn-/ |
| 2. {broad} = /brad/ or /brɔd/ ~ /brəd-/ | 7. {fame} = /fém/ ~ /-fəm-/       |
| 3. {wolf} = /wʊlf/ ~ /wʊlv-/            | 8. {vise} = /vɪʒ-/ ~ /-vayz/      |
| 4. {able} = /ébəl/ ~ /əbɪl-/            | 9. {sun} = /sən/                  |
| 5. {supreme} = /səprɪm/ ~ /səpreɪm-/    | 10. {atom} = /ætəm/ ~ /ətám-/     |

Exercise 8-30

- |           |                     |            |
|-----------|---------------------|------------|
| 1. /sənz/ | 3. /pæsəz/          | 5. /sæks/  |
| 2. /næps/ | 4. /hagz/ or /hɔgz/ | 6. /fɪzəz/ |



- |                           |              |                      |
|---------------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| 7. /dɪʃəz/                | 10. /stæfs/  | 13. /səmz/           |
| 8. /gəɾəʒəz/ or /gəɾəʒəz/ | 11. /čəɾčəz/ | 14. /hiθs/           |
| 9. /hoz/                  | 12. /gɔɾjəz/ | 15. /gaŋz/ or /gɔŋz/ |

Allomorphs: {-s pl} = /-s/    /-z/    /-əz/

Complementary distribution: /-əz/ after /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /č/, and /j/  
 /-s/ after other voiceless sounds  
 /-z/ after other voiced sounds

### Exercise 8-31

{be} + {-D pt} = /wəz/ ∞ /wər/

### Exercise 8-32

1. /sa/ = /si/ + /i > a/ or /sɔ/ = /si/ + /i > ɔ/
2. /bigæn/ = /bigɪn/ + /ɪ > æ/
3. /brɪt/ = /bayt/ + /ay > ɪ/
4. /gev/ = /gɪv/ + /ɪ > e/
5. /gru/ = /gro/ + /o > u/
6. /rod/ = /rayd/ + /ay > o/
7. /gawnd/ = /graynd/ + /ay > aw/
8. /tuk/ = /tek/ + /e > u/
9. /tɔɾ/ = /tɛɾ/ + /ɛ > ɔ/
10. /spok/ = /spik/ + /i > o/

### Exercise 8-33

- |                 |                             |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. meat         | 4. pear                     |
| meet            | pare                        |
| mete            | pair                        |
| 2. might (noun) | 5. pail                     |
| mite            | pale                        |
| might (aux.)    | 6. to                       |
| 3. you          | two                         |
| yew             | too (= also)                |
| ewe             | too (= more than should be) |

### Exercise 8-34

- |  |                                  |
|--|----------------------------------|
| 1. point                               | 7. abrupt stoppage of movement   |
| 2. moving light; smallness; repetition | 8. unabrupt stoppage of movement |
| 3. light; smallness; repetition        | 9. smallness                     |
| 4. smallness; repetition               | 10. smallness                    |
| 5. undesirable                         | 11. light                        |
| 6. undesirable                         | 12. repetition                   |

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- |                 |                                 |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|
| 13. smallness   | 17. abrupt stoppage of movement |
| 14. repetition  | 18. smallness; repetition       |
| 15. undesirable | 19. smallness                   |
| 16. smallness   | 20. repetition                  |

**Exercise 9-1**

- |         |             |
|---------|-------------|
| 1. Ø, 8 | 4. 6 7 8, 6 |
| 2. 7, 7 | 5. Ø, 7     |
| 3. 3, 5 | 6. 6, 7     |

**Exercise 9-2**

- |               |    |                  |    |                  |    |
|---------------|----|------------------|----|------------------|----|
| 1. knave      | S  | 8. pur ist       | Cx | 15. en able      | Cx |
| 2. knav ish   | Cx | 9. oyster        | S  | 16. mete         | S  |
| 3. graph      | S  | 10. mis anthrope | Cx | 17. met er       | Cx |
| 4. tele graph | Cx | 11. philo sophy  | Cx | 18. hydro meter  | Cx |
| 5. aqua naut  | Cx | 12. cannibal     | S  | 19. disco graphy | Cx |
| 6. bi cycle   | Cx | 13. refus al     | Cx | 20. shin y       | Cx |
| 7. pure       | S  | 14. dent al      | Cx |                  |    |

**Exercise 9-3**

- |      |       |
|------|-------|
| 1. 1 | 7. 8  |
| 2. 7 | 8. 3  |
| 3. 2 | 9. 3  |
| 4. 4 | 10. 5 |
| 5. 3 | 11. 3 |
| 6. 8 | 12. 9 |

**Exercise 9-4**

- |           |        |
|-----------|--------|
| 1. Cd     | 8. Cd  |
| 2. Gs     | 9. Cd  |
| 3. Cd     | 10. Gs |
| 4. Gs     | 11. Cd |
| 5. Cd, Gs | 12. Gs |
| 6. Cd     | 13. Cd |
| 7. Gs     | 14. Gs |

**Exercise 9-5**

- |                  |    |              |    |
|------------------|----|--------------|----|
| 1. shárp shóoter | Cd | 6. pass book | Cd |
| 2. shárp shóoter | Gs | 7. apparatus | S  |
| 3. act           | S  | 8. glow worm | Cd |
| 4. re act        | Cx | 9. im port   | Cx |
| 5. rattle snake  | Cd | 10. rip cord | Cd |



- |                 |    |                            |    |
|-----------------|----|----------------------------|----|
| 11. un earth    | Cx | 16. búlls  èye (of target) | Cd |
| 12. rat- a- tat | Cd | 17. búlls  éye (of bull)   | Gs |
| 13. beauty      | S  | 18. out last               | Cd |
| 14. beauti fy   | Cx | 19. bio chemical           | Cx |
| 15. geo metry   | Cx | 20. in accessible          | Cx |

**Exercise 10-1**

- |      |       |
|------|-------|
| 1. C | 6. E  |
| 2. D | 7. C  |
| 3. E | 8. E  |
| 4. I | 9. D  |
| 5. I | 10. D |

**Exercise 10-2**

- |                         |                           |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. advertisement        | 9. curiosity              |
| 2. discothèque          | 10. memorandum            |
| 3. taxicab              | 11. Frederick             |
| 4. cabriolet            | 12. Albert, Alfred, Alvin |
| 5. delicatessen         | 13. Thomas                |
| 6. vibrations           | 14. Joseph                |
| 7. zoological (gardens) | 15. Philip, Philbert      |
| 8. fanatic              |                           |

**Exercise 10-3**

- |              |                        |
|--------------|------------------------|
| 1. alligator | 6. periwig             |
| 2. turnpike  | 7. acute               |
| 3. omnibus   | 8. Eugene              |
| 4. caravan   | 9. Elizabeth           |
| 5. parachute | 10. Anthony or Antonio |

**Exercise 10-4**

1. American Indian
2. maître d'hôtel
3. condensation trail
4. taximeter cab(riolet)
5. motor + pedal
6. communications satellite
7. agriculture business

**Exercise 10-5**

1. recreational vehicle
2. National Organization of Women, negotiable order of withdrawal (bank term meaning check)

3. Mothers Against Drunk Driving
4. Old Kinderhook
5. self-contained underwater breathing apparatus
6. Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries
7. White, Anglo-Saxon Protestant
8. Intercontinental Ballistic Missile
9. light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation
10. Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation
11. Internal Revenue Service

**Exercise 10-6**

- |                             |                         |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. breakfast + lunch        | 6. smoke + fog          |
| 2. happen + circumstance    | 7. dumb + confound      |
| 3. stagnation + inflation   | 8. tele- + broadcast    |
| 4. simultaneous + broadcast | 9. fluster + frustrated |
| 5. motor + hotel            | 10. splash + spatter    |

**Exercise 10-7**

1. transistor
2. autobus
3. escalator
4. blurt
5. squawk

**Exercise 10-8**

- |             |        |
|-------------|--------|
| 1. need     | needy  |
| speed       | speedy |
| seed        | seedy  |
| bead        | beady  |
| 2. televise |        |
| 3. donate   |        |
| orate       |        |

**Exercise 10-9**

- |                                    |                      |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. housekeeper                     | 9. sideling          |
| 2. typewriter                      | 10. escalator        |
| 3. administrator or administration | 11. reminiscence     |
| 4. resurrection                    | 12. deficit-spending |
| 5. baby-sitter                     | 13. emotion          |
| 6. enthusiasm                      | 14. burglar          |
| 7. lazy                            | 15. party-pooper     |
| 8. laser                           |                      |



**Exercise 10-10**

1. femelle
2. Fr. carriole (carirole)
3. Sp. cucaracha
4. agnail, angnail (ag-, ang- meant painful.)
5. Welsh rabbit (*Welsh rabbit* was probably a jocular term, like *prairie oysters* for eggs and *Cape Cod turkey* for codfish.)
6. Dutch *kool* (cabbage) + *sla* (salad) became English coleslaw.
7. bridegome (When *-gome* [man] became obsolete, the nearest similar term for a human male was *groom*.)
8. helpmeet (*Helpmeet* was formed by a misunderstanding of Genesis 2:18 and 20, "... an help meet [= fitting] for him.")
9. otchcock (From a Native American language)

**Exercise 10-11**

1. From the fourth Earl of Sandwich "who once spent twenty-four hours at the gaming table with no other refreshment than some slices of cold beef between slices of toast." OED
2. Frankfurter (= of Frankfurt, Germany)
3. Bologna, Italy
4. French, serge de Nîmes (= serge of Nîmes, France)
5. Kashmir, India
6. Short for *jean fustian*, a tough cloth. The *jean* is from French Gênes (Genoa, Italy), where it was made.
7. Jules Léotard, an aerial gymnast
8. Guy Fawkes, an English conspirator of the seventeenth century. In England on Guy Fawkes Day his effigy, clad in grotesque and ill-fitting garments, was carried about the streets and then burnt in the evening amid fireworks. It was accompanied by other effigies of unpopular persons which were called "guys."
9. Named for William Lynch, whose approach to punishing criminals in the absence of authorized law enforcement officers has caused his name to be associated with vigilante activity, particularly hangings.
10. Named for Charles C. Boycott, a land agent with whom many in the local community refused to interact or do business.

**Exercise 10-12**

- |           |           |
|-----------|-----------|
| 1. wiggle | 4. super  |
| 2. patter | 5. silly  |
| 3. wit    | 6. (both) |

**Exercise 10-13**

- |      |      |
|------|------|
| 1. 3 | 3. 3 |
| 2. 3 | 4. 1 |

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- |      |       |
|------|-------|
| 5. 2 | 8. 3  |
| 6. 2 | 9. 2  |
| 7. 2 | 10. 2 |

**Exercise 11-1**

Plural	Possessive	Plural + Possessive
1. carpenters	carpenter's	carpenters'
2. women	woman's	women's
3. brothers	brother's	brothers'
brethren		brethren's
4. clouds	cloud's	clouds'
5. cattle		cattle's
6. ducks	duck's	ducks'
duck		
7. Japanese		
8. means		
9. athletics	athletics'	
10. scissors	scissors'	scissors

(There are differences of usage among the noun forms, particularly with the possessive.)

**Exercise 11-2**

1. them	Pl	7. it	Sg
2. it	Sg	8. it or them	Sg or Pl
3. it	Sg	9. it	Sg
4. them	Pl	10. it	Sg
5. them	Pl	11. they	Pl
6. them	Pl		

**Exercise 11-3**

- few
- that
- its
- their
- both

**Exercise 11-4**

- was
- were
- is



4. are
5. has

### Exercise 11-5

- |       |       |        |
|-------|-------|--------|
| 1. Sg | 4. Sg | 7. Pl  |
| 2. Pl | 5. Sg | 8. Sg  |
| 3. Pl | 6. Pl | 9. Sg  |
|       |       | 10. Pl |

### Exercise 11-6

1. child, children  
/čildrən/ = /čayld/ + /ay > ɪ/ + /-rən/
2. moose, moose  
/mus/ = /mus/ + /θ/
3. foot, feet  
/fit/ = /fut/ + /u > i/
4. leaf, leaves  
/livz/ = /lif/ + /f > v/ + /-z/
5. wolf, wolves  
/wulvz/ = /wulf/ + /f > v/ + /-z/
6. path, paths  
/pæðz/ = /pæθ/ + /θ > ð/ + /-z/ or perhaps /pæθs/ = /pæθ/ + /-s/

### Exercise 11-7

#### One allomorph

grief  
chief  
belief  
waif

#### Two allomorphs

scarf  
truth  
wharf  
sheath  
wreath  
staff

### Exercise 11-8

1. /-ə > -e/
2. /-z/ or /-ə > -e/
3. /-əz/ or /-s > -rə/
4. /-əz/ or /-ɪks > -əsɪz/
5. /-z/ or /-əm > -ə/
6. /-ɪs > -ɪz/
7. /-ɪm/ or /-im/
8. /θ/ or /-əz/
9. /-z/ or /-əm > -ə/

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10. /-əs > -ay/
11. /-z/ or /-əm > -ə/
12. /-o > -i/
13. /-əz/ or /-əs > -ay/
14. /-əs > -iz/
15. /-n/

**Exercise 11-9**

- |         |      |       |
|---------|------|-------|
| 1. 4    | 5. 5 | 9. 1  |
| 2. 3, 5 | 6. 3 | 10. 5 |
| 3. 2    | 7. 5 |       |
| 4. 6    | 8. 4 |       |

**Exercise 11-10**

1. 5, 6
2. 1, 3, 5, 6
3. 1, 2
4. 1, 3, 5, 6
5. 5, 6

**Exercise 11-11**

There are no *right* answers, as this is an investigation of the usage of the class.

**Exercise 11-12**

- |      |       |       |
|------|-------|-------|
| 1. N | 6. N  | 11. — |
| 2. — | 7. N  | 12. N |
| 3. N | 8. N  | 13. N |
| 4. — | 9. —  | 14. N |
| 5. — | 10. N | 15. — |

**Exercise 11-13**

Pres. 3rd Sg.	Pres. P.	Past T.	Past Part.	
1. walks	walking	walked	walked	4
2. bites	biting	bit	bit, bitten	4 or 5
3. keeps	keeping	kept	kept	4
4. freezes	freezing	froze	frozen	5
5. sets	setting	set	set	3
6. sells	selling	sold	sold	4
7. puts	putting	put	put	3
8. rises	rising	rose	risen	5
9. teases	teasing	teased	teased	4
10. sleeps	sleeping	slept	slept	4



**Exercise 11-14**

Past T.	Past P.	Past T.	Past P.
1. stəŋ	stəŋ	8. rəŋ (or) ræŋ	rəŋ
2. krɛpt	krɛpt	9. kept	kept
3. drɒv	drɪvən	10. dɛlt	dɛlt
4. sɛŋ (or) sæŋ	səŋ	11. swæm	swəm
5. rɒd	rɪdən	12. spən	spən
6. rɒt	rɪtən	13. wən	wən
7. kləŋ	kləŋ		

Class 1: sting, cling, spin, win

{-D pt} = /ɪ &gt; ə/

Class 2: creep, keep, deal

{-D pp} = /ɪ &gt; ə/

{-D pt} = /i &gt; ɛ/ + /t/

{-D pp} = /i &gt; ɛ/ + /t/

Class 3: drive, ride, write

{-D pt} = /ay &gt; o/

{-D pp} = /ay &gt; ɪ/

+ /ən/

Class 4: sing, ring, swim

{-D pt} = /ɪ &gt; e/ or /ɪ &gt; æ/

{-D pp} = /ɪ &gt; ə/

**Exercise 11-15**

1. N	5. N	9. N	13. NV	17. N
2. NV	6. V	10. NV	14. N	18. NV
3. V	7. NV	11. N	15. N	19. NV
4. N	8. V	12. V	16. NV	20. V

**Exercise 11-16**

1. I have practiced my piano lesson yesterday afternoon.
2. I practiced my piano lesson yesterday afternoon.
3. Her roommate received an award last Wednesday.
4. Her roommate has received an award last Wednesday.
5. Two years ago I have visited Spain.
6. She stayed in the hospital fifteen days.
7. She has stayed in the hospital fifteen days.
8. It has rained since one o'clock.
9. She has played tennis last night.
10. I have worked in the garden for three days.

**Exercise 11-17**

- |                           |                           |                           |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. progressive            | 4. progressive            | 7. progressive            |
| 2. perfective             | 5. perfective-progressive | 8. perfective-progressive |
| 3. perfective-progressive | 6. perfective             |                           |

**Exercise 11-18**

- |                 |                   |
|-----------------|-------------------|
| 1. <u>were</u>  | 6. <u>write</u>   |
| 2. <u>were</u>  | 7. <u>were</u>    |
| 3. <u>save</u>  | 8. <u>be</u>      |
| 4. <u>stand</u> | 9. <u>were</u>    |
| 5. <u>be</u>    | 10. <u>answer</u> |

**Exercise 11-19**

1. imperative
2. indicative
3. imperative
4. subjunctive
5. indicative
6. subjunctive
7. imperative
8. indicative
9. imperative
10. indicative

**Exercise 11-20**

With some of these forms there is variation in usage both among different speakers and in the speech of a single individual. Your answers may vary from what is listed below.

- |              |            |
|--------------|------------|
| 1. angrier   | angriest   |
| 2. healthier | healthiest |
| 3.           | bitterest  |
| 4. commoner  | commonest  |
| 5.           | cruellest  |
| 6.           |            |
| 7.           | handsomest |
| 8.           |            |
| 9. mellower  | mellowest  |
| 10.          |            |
| 11. quieter  | quietest   |
| 12. remoter  | remotest   |
| 13.          | severest   |
| 14. solidier | solidest   |
| 15.          | stupidest  |
| 16. nobler   | noblest    |
| 17. dustier  | dustiest   |
| 18. dirtier  | dirtiest   |
| 19. livelier | liveliest  |
| 20. gentler  | gentlest   |



**Exercise 11-21**

1.                    oftener                    oftenest
2. No
3. No
4. No (But cf. Tennyson's  
Music that gentlier on the spirit lies  
Than tired eyelids upon tired eyes.)
5.                    later                    latest
6. No
7. No
8. No
9. No
10.                  slower                  slowest
11. No
12.                  nearer                  nearest
13. No
14.                  farther                  farthest  
                        further                  furthest
15.                  quicker                  quickest
16. No
17.                  louder                  loudest
18. No
19.                  higher                  highest
20.                  lower                  lowest

**Exercise 11-22**

- |           |        |            |          |
|-----------|--------|------------|----------|
| 1. better | best   | 4. littler | littlest |
| 2. worse  | worst  | 5. less    | least    |
| 3. older  | oldest | 6. more    | most     |
| elder     | eldest | fewer      | fewest   |

**Exercise 11-23**

- |       |        |
|-------|--------|
| 1. Aj | 6. NA  |
| 2. NA | 7. Aj  |
| 3. Aj | 8. Aj  |
| 4. NA | 9. Aj  |
| 5. NA | 10. Aj |

**Exercise 12-1**

- |   |      |
|---|------|
| 1. <u>president</u> . . . <u>plan</u> .     | 3, 3 |
| 2. <u>janitors</u> . . . <u>umbrella</u> .  | 2, 3 |
| 3. <u>counselor</u> . . . <u>approach</u> . | 3, 3 |
| 4. <u>aunt</u> . . . <u>son</u> .           | 3, 3 |

5. Mother's cake                      1, 3  
 6. chef's sisters                      1, 2

[Exercise 12-2 omitted]

### **Exercise 12-3**

- |                       |          |        |                        |          |       |
|-----------------------|----------|--------|------------------------|----------|-------|
| 1. <u>failure</u>     | fail     | -ure   | 11. <u>sickness</u>    | sick     | -ness |
| 2. <u>payment</u>     | pay      | -ment  | 12. <u>refusal</u>     | refuse   | -al   |
| 3. <u>assistant</u>   | assist   | -ant   | 13. <u>width</u>       | wide     | -th   |
| 4. <u>sailor</u>      | sail     | -or    | 14. <u>sincerity</u>   | sincere  | -ity  |
| 5. <u>catcher</u>     | catch    | -er    | 15. <u>freedom</u>     | free     | -dom  |
| 6. <u>collision</u>   | collide  | -ion   | 16. <u>Childhood</u>   | child    | -hood |
| 7. <u>leakage</u>     | leak     | -age   | 17. <u>lawyer</u>      | law      | -yer  |
| 8. <u>Reformation</u> | reform   | -ation | 18. <u>scholarship</u> | scholar  | -ship |
| 9. <u>discovery</u>   | discover | -y     | 19. <u>fragrance</u>   | fragrant | -ce   |
| 10. <u>amusement</u>  | amuse    | -ment  | 20. <u>intimacy</u>    | intimate | -cy   |

### **Exercise 12-4**

- |              |   |             |           |   |               |
|--------------|---|-------------|-----------|---|---------------|
| 1. met       | 4 | past tense  | 6. eats   | 5 | pres. 3rd sg. |
| 2. swept     | 4 | past part.  | 7. set    | 3 | past tense    |
| 3. leave     | 4 | stem        | 8. lying  | 5 | pres. part.   |
| 4. spreading | 3 | pres. part. | 9. bought | 4 | past part.    |
| 5. eaten     | 5 | past part.  | 10. sank  | 5 | past tense    |

### **Exercise 12-5**

- |                       |          |      |
|-----------------------|----------|------|
| 1. <u>amplified</u>   | ample    | -ify |
| 2. <u>personifies</u> | person   | -ify |
| 3. <u>prove</u>       | proof    | -ve  |
| 4. <u>weaken</u>      | weak     | -en  |
| 5. <u>liberalized</u> | liberal  | -ize |
| 6. <u>strengthen</u>  | strength | -en  |
| 7. <u>idolize</u>     | idol     | -ize |
| 8. <u>terrorized</u>  | terror   | -ize |
| 9. <u>soften</u>      | soft     | -en  |
| 10. <u>frightened</u> | fright   | -en  |

### **Exercise 12-6**

- | -er        | -est     | -ly     | -ness     |
|------------|----------|---------|-----------|
| 1. closer  | closest  | closely | closeness |
| 2. icier   | iciest   | icily   | iciness   |
| 3. sweeter | sweetest | sweetly | sweetness |
| 4. sadder  | saddest  | sadly   | sadness   |
| 5. higher  | highest  | highly  | highness  |



6. sunnier	sunniest	sunnilly	suninness
7. gentler	gentlest	gently	gentleness
8. smaller	smallest	—	smallness
9. littler	littlest	—	littleness
10. faster	fastest	—	fastness
11. friendlier	friendliest	friendlily	friendliness
12. —	—	naturally	naturalness

The word *natural* is an adjective but does not fit the test explained above.

(Note that the use of a word such as *friendlily* is a matter of dialect or idiolect.)

### Exercise 12-7

1. gold	-en
2. help	-less
3. love	-ly
4. mess	-y
5. peace	-ful
6. insult	-ar
7. nerve	-ous
8. fragment	-ary
9. repent	-ant
10. affection	-ate
11. fool	-ish
12. rhythm	-ic
13. region	-al
14. tire	-ed
15. separate	/et/
16. recur	-ent
17. instruct	-ive
18. perish	-able
19. meddle	-some
20. congratulate	-ory
21. please	-ant
22. good	-ly
23. live	-ly

### Exercise 12-8

- |       |        |
|-------|--------|
| 1. Aj | 9. Aj  |
| 2. Av | 10. Aj |
| 3. Av | 11. Av |
| 4. Aj | 12. Av |
| 5. Av | 13. Av |
| 6. Av | 14. Av |
| 7. Av | 15. Av |
| 8. Av |        |

**Exercise 12-9**

- |       |        |
|-------|--------|
| 1. NS | 6. Aj  |
| 2. N  | 7. NS  |
| 3. N  | 8. Av  |
| 4. V  | 9. Aj  |
| 5. N  | 10. NS |

**Exercise 13-1**

- |             |    |
|-------------|----|
| 1. very     | Aj |
| 2. too      | Aj |
| 3. quite    | Av |
| 4. somewhat | Aj |
| 5. rather   | Aj |

**Exercise 13-2**

- |       |        |
|-------|--------|
| 1. NS | 7. NS  |
| 2. Av | 8. NS  |
| 3. V  | 9. Aj  |
| 4. N  | 10. Av |
| 5. V  | 11. N  |
| 6. Av |        |

**Exercise 13-3**

1. a bit, a good deal, a great deal, almost, a lot, lots, much, no, kind of, any (in questions and negatives), a whole lot, even, indeed, somewhat, sort of, still
2. enough
3. indeed, still
4. right, just, even

**Exercise 13-4**

1. The car stopped at the station.
2. We walked under the tree.
3. He came from the farm.
4. Did the party advance into the jungle?
5. This is the farm he came from. No
6. These roses are for you.
7. The chimpanzee in the cage was yawning.
8. The boy stood on a barrel.
9. We know what you are looking for.
10. The plumber washed in the basin.
11. Our train passed beneath them.



12. The rose by the window was wilted.
13. He walked to the last platform.
14. What is it for?
15. We invested despite the risk.

**Exercise 13-5**

1. below
2. below
3. near
4. near
5. off
6. off
7. after
8. after
9. since
10. since

**Exercise 13-6**

- |                     |                       |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. <u>Barring</u>   | 6. <u>Considering</u> |
| 2. <u>following</u> | 7. <u>including</u>   |
| 3. <u>following</u> | 8. <u>including</u>   |
| 4. <u>regarding</u> | 9. <u>beginning</u>   |
| 5. <u>regarding</u> | 10. <u>concerning</u> |

**Exercise 13-7**

- |                         |                        |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. <u>ahead of</u>      | 6. <u>on behalf of</u> |
| 2. <u>on account of</u> | 7. <u>instead of</u>   |
| 3. <u>up at</u>         | 8. <u>in lieu of</u>   |
| 4. <u>Contrary to</u>   | 9. <u>In spite of</u>  |
| 5. <u>by way of</u>     | 10. <u>In case of</u>  |

**Exercise 13-8**

- |       |        |        |
|-------|--------|--------|
| 1. D  | 7. D   | 12. D  |
| 2. NS | 8. D   | 13. D  |
| 3. D  | 9. D   | 14. D  |
| 4. D  | 10. D  | 15. D  |
| 5. NS | 11. NS | 16. NS |
| 6. D  |        |        |

**Exercise 13-9**

1. Police raided a gathering
2. Complete the faculty at State

- A complete faculty at State
3. Rule the book not obscene  
The rule book not obscene
  4. A clean model house  
Clean the model house
  5. A girl shows top baby beef  
Girl shows top the baby beef

**Exercise 13-10**

1. 2
2. 2
3. 3
4. 0
5. 2
6. 1

**Exercise 13-11**

1. PA
2. MA
3. PAD
4. MA
5. PA

**Exercise 13-12**

- MA be
1. must be  
MA have
  2. ought to have  
MA be
  3. could be  
MA have be
  4. could have been  
MA have
  5. might have

None differs from the sequence described.

**Exercise 13-13**

1. Neg. He was not eating. Aux  
Q. Was he eating?
2. Neg. He did not quit eating. V  
Q. Did he quit eating?



3. Neg. The worker was not killed. Aux  
Q. Was the worker killed?
4. Neg. The worker has not gone. Aux  
Q. Has the worker gone?
5. Neg. We should not hurry. Aux  
Q. Should we hurry?
6. Neg. We cannot hurry. Aux  
Q. Can we hurry?
7. Neg. They are not going. Aux  
Q. Are they going?
8. Neg. They did not keep going. V  
Q. Did they keep going?
9. Neg. He could not have been sleeping. Aux  
Q. Could he have been sleeping?
10. Neg. He will not play. Aux  
Q. Will he play?

**Exercise 13-14**

1. whom
2. whom
3. who
4. whom
5. whom

**Exercise 13-15**

1. who Hum
2. who Hum
3. which Nhum
4. which Nhum
5. which Nhum

**Exercise 13-16**

1. PP
2. SbP
3. PP
4. SbP
5. SbP
6. SbP
7. PP
8. PP
9. SbP
10. PP

**Exercise 14-1**

1. fence
2. fence
3. fence
4. fence
5. fence
6. fence

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7. putter
8. putter

9. car
10. swings

**Exercise 14-2**

1. the small study table
2. any great European opera
3. that somber evening sky
4. my roommate's tennis shoes
5. all the other white linen handkerchiefs
6. a soft pat on the head
7. a hard blow which staggered him
8. that broken ski lying in the basement
9. a junior with a lame leg who was walking on crutches
10. the girl in the front row whose books he was carrying

**Exercise 14-3**

Here are a few samples of the kinds of modifiers you might use.

1. The sailboats on the bay are beautiful to watch.
2. They sailed under the wooden bridge near the lighthouse.
3. He makes exquisite jewelry which is bought by collectors.

**Exercise 14-4**

- |          |           |
|----------|-----------|
| 1. count | 6. mass   |
| 2. mass  | 7. count  |
| 3. mass  | 8. mass   |
| 4. mass  | 9. mass   |
| 5. count | 10. count |

**Exercise 14-5**

- |           |        |            |        |
|-----------|--------|------------|--------|
| 1. count  | proper | 6. mass    | count  |
| 2. mass   | count  | 7. count   | count  |
| 3. count  | proper | 8. mass    | count  |
| 4. mass   | mass   | 9. proper  | count  |
| 5. proper | count  | 10. proper | proper |